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THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.



## 'JHE

## COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD: <br> AEING

 NEAK, AND PEOPIAK OF TLIE GLOBE:

BY<br>Robert Brown, m.a., Ph.D., f.L.s., f.r.a.s., Author of "The Races of Mankiun," wtr, ets.

Cassell, Petter, Galpin \& Co.: LONDON, PARIS \& NEW YORK.

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## LAST UF ILLUSTRATIONS.




 1
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Vï.w of Nikohilevak, tho liapital of Dmonland ...
I Niberian thag Nierlgo ... ... ... ... I:
V"íw of latke Ihaikull, Niburia ... ... ... 13
I'rivoneve on the Renal tor Niberia ... ... ... 17
V"íw of ( Mmask, Nilurvin ... ... ... ... !0
Ihatiak llanture of Siluetia ... ... ... ... $\because 1$
Anp of ('hima and some of the Aldoining Conutries $\quad: 1$
Vinw in the Village of l'olo-llang, Proviner of Cintori, ...

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Vinw in tho Village of W'onge'Tong l'tovince of ( 111 ton ...

. Desubue in l'ekin ...
I l'agora, or Mrmerial Jower, in the l'roviner of Suci-1 how, China ... ... To finer me!er

Virw of the City of Amey, in the l'movine of Frokitll...

36
"iaw of lant of swatow, in the l'roviter of

I liatio in the l'vovine of 1 Ruang-'lung ... ... $\$ 0$
Hath-Menc-tir-Kiue Ntred, l'rkin ... ... ... 11
 l'voxitur of Pros'hili
(liauesr . Artillevin't ... ... .. ... I!
tamula of tho North of Chinat ... ... ... it
Ihimese and 'liartur lation ... ... ... ... is
Ater Dinnar: I Family Necone in t'lina.... ... ii
I Nitreet in Hong kiong ... ... ... ... 60
Vinw of the lapits of the C'hn-Kiang, C'anton, of P'enrl River

61
I Chineso Cirt ... ... ... ... ... bit
Fire on an Asiatic Niteppe: ... ... To fure paye 6is
A strect in Mong Kong ... ... ... ... 6is
A f'urvin l'alanguin ... ... ... ... ... (i9)
Mungul lialklas ... ... ... ... ... $i=2$
A Siandatom in the losert ... ... ... ... if
-1 Mongol ciamed un the Diach ... ... ... 7
Fcase in the Desert of (iobi... ... ... ... so
 ..... $N 1$A. Monkel Campon the Mowe
84
A Ntrett in Varkund, Finstern 'Turkestan ... ..... Mi
 ..... 88
then of the Fort af Vimuy onhalur, Five Miles from
Kinsphar, Fanaterin 'lorkentati ... ..... \& 9
A Kirghic. Mridu. ..... 93
'Tungans anul Kalmuks of K゙ulija ... ..... 96
Nerne la a Village in the lates Country To. fiere payg ..... 17
A "T,utar" of kulija ..... 07
A 'I'urantehi Mtanpure at Kinhlian ..... 100
Natives of the Valley of Npiti, l'tovinere of lumbik ..... 101
Viaw of thes Satt Iake of 'lsumoriri, W'eatorn 'Lidnet ..... 10.5
View in Iadh, the C'mpital of Batlak. ..... 109
 ..... 11:
Siow on the liver Irrawndily, lhormath ..... 113
Hols on the lanke of the lives Irmandey, lbırunh ..... 117
Siaw of lasonir, Iturs ..... 121
 ..... 121
A Ihaldhist Wint, or 'l'mple, at Bangkuk, Niann .. ..... 128
 ..... 129
[idueval Viow of lankok mul the lemam livir.. ..... 129
'The Nupheme King of Nian in hin State Rober ..... 132
"Mar "Namul Kinar" of Niam in his Niate Robes ..... 13:1
A Niamme Wiar Rilopham ..... 1:5
View in Khomg, I'ambalia .....  140
Harges on the Mokoug livir, ('moluslia ... .....  111
View on the Hanks of the Mossp, Cinminulia .....  144
V'ibw of l'anompint, the ('upilal of c'onilnalia .....  14i
Ituian on Mount Bakhong, Canlmolia ..... 148
'Ihe Main Nimet of Huc, Capitul of the Kingdom of Anum ..... 1.53
Anamito Workmen Inlaying with Mother-of-Pcarl ..... 156
Strect View in Saigon ..... 157
A lsullock Curriage in Corhin-China ..... 160
thu the Courso (Muidan), Calcutta, with it View of ( iowrinment Ilouse und the Ochterlony Monu- ment ... ..... To fare paye 161
Filoplant Plonghing in Coylon ..... 161
Virw of Point de (inlle, Cevgn .....  164
Map of Iower India und C'eylon ..... $16 i$

＇lhe lixterion of the timetery of Mahat sati．at
$\because 14$


View of the City of baroda fom the liand Bis－ wamintri）
$\because 3$
Vi，w in trinum，Kiantmir．．．．．．．．．．．2\％

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l＇alitce of the liajah of Niplatul ．．．．．．．．．\％（i．）
Viow of the lhalan lasi ．．．．．．．．．．．． 2 的
Viow of khelat ．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．$\quad 269$
Viaw of the（＇ity of＇abal ．．．．．．．．．．．．2：
The＇Tomb of the limprow hater at（＇atal ．．． 276
Viow of Yimgi hissar，at the Jood of the l＇mir
Chain ．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．． 281
．Kirghi\％Nultan ．．．．．．．．．．．．．． 281


（＇rowning the sici－barya ．．．．．．．．．．．．2a！
＇lukgham W゚omen ．．．．．．．．．．．．．． $2!2 \cdot 2$
I＇ourt of the Palace of the Prx－khan of Khokan ．．． 293
Sirtive l＇uliee at the Giate of the Xospue of thath Zindeh，samatrand
$29 i$



Sctur on the Stuples of the（irpian
301
＇Jhe Maidatn Nhath，or lioyal Nipare，leprathon ．．． 301
Thee Nhalis J＇alace at＇J＇rhewan ．．．．．．．．．30．5
The（Hh Sonth diatu，＇Theran ．．．．．．．．． 308
＇THe（＇ity（iatt，＇liabriz ．．．．．．．．．．．．：3t？
Vitw of Nhitaz ．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．3t3
＇Juwer on the Site of the Amernt hitghes．D＇asia

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or his-
... 2.53
. . 2.5
1"4.
240
... 261
... 261
... $2(6.5$
... 2 is
... 260
... 2i:
... $\because 7$
l'antir
281
... 281
2кi.
2s!
? (9)
29
$29: 3$
296
of Nhath
297
Tukey

# THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD. 

## CIIAPTER I.

## Siberia: Kamtciatika; Amoonland and Siberla Proper.

RHOM America to Asia is geographically but a step. Behring Strait is, indecd, at its narrowest point, only thirty-six miles wide. Here Prince of Wales Capeon the snows of which Eugène Suc, in his most famous work, places his "juif errant"-faces East Cape on the Asiatic shore, and as the Strait is at no place more than thirty fathoms in depth, it is more than probable that in some of the changes which the volcanic region has undergone, this connection between the Aretic Ocean and the Pacifie has been opened within comparatively recent geological periods. The Diomede, and other islands in it, whieh now play to the tribes on either side the part of the Roman "termes"-a commereial neutral gronndmay le the last fragments of this vanished isthmus. Haze and fog often overhang the sea hereabouts, but owing to the shoaliness of its waters icebergs are rare. The walrus is found on its northern shores, and in the southern parts, as well as on the . Nentian islands, therc is carried on a great trade in killing the sea otter (Vol. I., p. 305) and the fur seals, which, in spite of the war of extermination which until recently was waged against them, are still numerous on these lonely voleanic-shaken isles. Some of them, particularly Behring's Island, when first discovered, were inhabited by a species of sea-cow, the Rhytina Stelle on which Behring and his companions fed, but the visits of hurgry scamen soon exterminated it, and even a fraginent of its skeleton is now rare in muscums. The whole group seems at one time to have been inhabited by Lskimo, and, indeed, the Alcuts are only members of the same widespread family.* The Eskimo, however, do not extend on the Asiatie shore further than Tuski Land; and it may be noted that the point of contact between the essentially American Liskimo and Asia is just where the long winter's ice wonld allow them to cross in their dug-sledges.

But the country we have now entered is a widely different one from the land we have

[^0]left. Its northern regions are not so barren as the Aretic boundaries of America, and its southern plains and forests are not so luxuriant. It is a lone land nearly one million square miles larger tam Earope, but is not, contrary to the common belief, desolate thronghout, being in the more sonthern parts extremely rich and fruitful. It is thinly peopled, either by wandering heathen tribes herding reindeer, or gaining a precarious livelihood by hunting, or by Russian settlers, the majority of whom passed the Oural mountains from no wish of their own. Siberia, in a word, is, as all the world knows, the Russian penal colony, and though there are on the high roads of travel busy, populous, and even fine citiesjust as there were in Australia when that continent was our place of banishmenteverything in Siberia is temperel ly the prevailing conviet element. The "unfortunates" are everywhere, but as these exiles have in many cases been the foremost men in Russian public life, the material for progress in the great trams-Oural territory is great. Stretching from Cape Chelyuskin or Severo, the most northern point of Asia-the Promontorium Tortin of Pliny-it stretelies south for nearly 2,000 miles, and from east to west for 3,600 miles. For politieal purposes the country is divided into the two great divisions of Western and Eastern Siberia, among which are distributel the Governments of Tobolsk, whieh contains over a million of inhabitants, Tomsk, Yeniseisk, Yakutsk, Irkutsk, Transbaikalia, the Amoor Province, and the Littoral Provinee, which includes Kamtchatka and the shores of Behring Strait. Kamtehatka and the Amoor are, however, naturally separable from the rest of Siberia. Accordingly, it will be more convenient for our purpose to say a few words about each of them before sketching in fuller detail the great plains lying to the west.

## К.mтсиatк.

This peninsula,* perhaps the dreariest part of the Russian empire, was not discovered by the Siberian conquerors until the close of the seventecuth century; but in 1697 the work of suljecetion began, and by 1711 the docile inhabitants, who were only a few savages living under petty chiefs, had submitted to their new masters, wh however, have never been able to gain much glory or revenue from the new territus. The tribute is paid in sable and other furs, and the coast affords few good harbou. The seltlements of the "Littoral Province" are still in a very embryonic condition, and likely to continue so. Yet the first sight of Kamtehatka is, to the voyager in whose mind it is associated with "the wolf's long howl from Onalaska's shore," not unpleasing. He expects iee, glaciers, and the bare liehened rocks of the country in the same latitude on the other side of Ameriea. Instead, his eye lights upon hills, covered with trees and verdant thickets, upon valleys white with clover and diversified with little groves of silver-barked bireh, and even on rocks gay with wild roses and columbines, as he enters the harbour of Petropavlovski (p. 4), whose red-roofed and bark-thatehel log-houses, and green-domed elureh, contrast pleasingly with the high hills, which "sweep in a great semicircle of foliage" round the quiet pond-like inlet of Avatelia Bay on which the village is placed. Petropavlovski, one of the most isolated of all the spots dedicated to the honour
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[^1]of Peter and Paul, has few "lions" for the sight-secing tourist. The two rude monuments to the memory of the famous navigators, Behring and La Perouse, are the visible signs of the better side of the Kamtehatkan vilhage. The grass-grown fortifications, built during the Crimean War to repel the ill-advised and unsuccessful attack of the allied lreneh and English squadrons, and the densely-peopled graveyarl not far off, present the history of Petropawlovski in its less pleasing forms. 'The roar of the allies' eamon was, perhaps, the first intimation that the inhabitants-native Cossaeks and peasants-ever had of Turkey and the "Eastern Question." But to this day it is customary, on the anniversary of the battle, for all the inhahitants to march in solemn procession "romad the town and over the hill from which the storming party was thrown, chanting lymus of joy and praise for the victory." 'The extreme length of the Peninsula of Kamtchatka is about 700 miles, and it is divided longitudinally by an almost continuous range of rugged mountains, containing many extinet voleanoes, in addition to five or six in a state of nearly contimons activity. To the north of this range is high level steppe or "dole," a dreary desert, the ehosen home of the wandering "reindeer Koriaks." The central and southern parts of the peninsula are, according to Mr. Kemam, broken up by the spmrs and foot-hills of the great mountain range into deep sequestered valleys of the wildest and most picturespue character, and afford scenery which, for majestic and varied beanty, is not surpassed in all Northern Asia. The climate, except in the north, is comparatively mild and equable, and the vegetation is luxuriant, beyond anything which our pre-coneeived ideas of the country would ascribe to it. The population of the Littoral Provinee the Russian statists put down (in 18i3) at 50,512, and of this number Mr. Keman eredits Kantehatka with 5,000. Of these the Kamtchatkdals are the most numerous. They are settled in little log villages, chiefly near the mouth of the small rivers which rise in the central range and fall into the sea of Okhotsk and the Pacifie, and are engaged in fishing, fur trapping, and the cultivation of rye, turnips, eabbages, and potatoes, which grow fairly well as far north as $55^{\circ}$. In the fertile valleys of the Kamtchatka river there are many such settlements, where, an Ameriean visitor affirms, the farmers, in spite of their isolation, enjoy as much material comfort as do the oecupants of many of the rough, unkempt outposts of civilisation in the United States. The Russians are, for the most part, traders among the Kamtehatkdals, and some of them are freed exiles, or Cossacks of the rudest type. The latter also form the garrisons. The wandering Koriaks are a wild raee, who shun civilisation, and rarely eome farther south than latitude $55^{\circ}$, and then only for the purpose of trade. They wander about from place to place, depending for subsistence on their large herds of reindeer, and living in fur tents pitched in spots suitable for pasturing their domestic animals. The Russians are prudent enough not to attempt governing these independent folks too mueh. But the rest of the Kamtehatkdals are nominally ruled by an "Ispravnik," or district governor, who is at once the judge and the collector of the annual "yassak," or tax of furs, which is levied on cvery male inhabitant in the province. But as in Kamtchatka, pack-horses, canoes, and dog sledges are the only means of getting about in a country where a road is unknown, his Excellency the Ispravnik is rarely seen outside Petropavlovski, where he has his head-quarters. Tagil is another

[^2]"fortress," and Nijni-Kamtchatka, in the valley of the Kamtchatka river, is the only other place of consequence. Altogether, in the Peninsula, which varics in breadth from 30 to 120 miles, there may be about $\mathrm{s} 0,000$ square miles. The volcanoes, only one of which (Kliuchev, 16,131 feet) is of great height, constitute the northern continuation of those traversing the Philippine and the Jilpanese Islandi. On the cast, where the mountains approach close to the shore, the cliffs are high and precipitous, but


EATHANCE TO THE HAHBOCL Of PETROPAVLOVSKI.
as most of the inlets are blocked at their mouths with reefs, the harbours which naturally exist are for the present incapalle of being utilised, and as the only river which cannot be employed as an inlet to the country debouches into a shallow bay exposed to the full force of the easterly winds, the opening up of Kamtchatka is still in the far future. Nor is there much to develop. The few vegetables grown-when they are not destroyed by untimely frosts, heavy rains, or armies of mice and rats-are not more than sufficient for local consumption, and the same may be said in regard to the cattle and horses which are reared in the valley of the river just noted. Accordingly, unless mines are discovered, the peninsula is likely for ever to remain in its present condition of solitary desolation, a
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map of siberla and part of china.
home for a few semi-savages of habits too disgusting to be reeorled in all their minutiar, and for convicts harmless enough to be trusted so near the sea.*

## Asoomand.

The great rivers of Siberia flow into the Aretie Sea, but that which drains the Amoor comentry debonches into the Pacilic: hence its importance. The Amoor, Amour, Amur, or Sakalin, formed by the union of several streams, is in all about 1,600 miles in length. Naturally, therefore, the climate of the comintry through which it flows varies. In the upper part of its course the summers are short and the winters cold; further south it passes throngh a region which enjoys almost tropical heat. Here oaks, limes, and elms flourish in great forests, insteal of the stunted larch and firs on its upper waters. On the lower Amoor the climate is again that of typical Siberia. The river is frozen up halt the fear, and the general surroundings are also of the Island of Saghalint, opposite which is its month (Vol. 1V., p. 316). Amoorland first becane known to the Russians in 16:39, and soon after then Cossack irregulars began conflicts with the Chinese, who controlled and partially ocenpied the country. These skirmishes were not always on the side of the invaders, but in the end a treaty was concluded, the effect of which was to transfer a considerable portion of the region from the Chinese to the Russians. This was in 16s:, and up to 15.17 there were not many alterations of the state of matters thens brought about. But in 1817 the Russians began to make preparations for further conquests in the Amoor Valley, which preparations ended as they have usually done when the Asiatic pot and the lussian pan came into collision; for in 1860 the whole Amoor Yalley, as we now know it, fell into the hands of the Czar, and has continued as part of his dominions. Though the advantages to be gained by the possession of this country have not been fulfilled to the extravagant extent it was at one time believel they would eventuate in, it camnot be denied that the Amoor drains a country for the most part very fine, and that eventually it may form a home for millions quite as attractive as most parts of Canada. Though the Amoo: proper is only 1,000 miles long, its tributaries are many of them very large rivers, and altogether, taking its largest feeders as the contimation of the river, it is over 2,860 miles long, and 2,200 of these are navigable by steamer. Altogether, it drains an area of 766,000 square miles, comprising much fertile and well-wooded country. The "Amoor Province" proper embraces an area of 164,000 square miles, while part of the Littoral Province, under which is also ineluded Kamtehatka, is embraced in this country. The total population of the former provinee wats, in 1873, 25,201-the greater portion of them Thngoose barbarians (p. 8) and con-

[^3]viets. There are numerous steamboats on the riser, and a considerable trade is arried on. But the channel is narrow and intricate, and even, according to Captain Bus, with a vessel drawing only eight feet and a half of water, the greatest care is necessary to keep it from grounding. It, however, abounds with salmon and other fish, and may, under a better system, contribute more extensively than it does at present to the wealth of the world.* Mr. Ronald Brilgett, who, a few years ago, made a voyage up the river, deseribes the ice on it as breaking up in April, and moving away down stream with great uproar at the rate of about twenty miles a day. By the middle of October it again begins to freeze, and when sufficiently firm a sledge track follows the course of the stream, post stations being established at intervals of fifteen to thirty miles, and provided with the enstomary Government order, the traveller can ordinarily obtain post-horses, though on the lower part of the river he has to content himself with a Giliak sledge and a team of dogs. The winter post from Nikolaievsk to St. Petersburg aeross Siberia usually oceupies fifty to fifty-five days, but there is a case on reeord in which a Government courier, travelling uninterruptedly, made the journey in thirty days. During the summer months steamers aseend from Nikolaievsk, in the Pacific, to Stretensk, on the Shilka tributary, in the Goverument of Transbaikalia, in about the same period, though the descent is made in half that time, the steamer anehoring during the night.

Nikolaievsk (p. 9), the capital of the Goveznment, is, when first seen by the voyager entering from the Gulf of Tartary, a rather striking place. The houses are not numerons, but their green and red shingle roofs, contrasted with sombre forests, give a gay aspect to the town. The buildings are usually of one storey, and built of wood, with double windows to exclude the cold, which, during the seven months' winter, is intense. 'There is a public library and reading-room, and a club where balls and concerts of the amatenr musical talent of the place are held; but the wide streets, bordered by a wooden plankway, are very deserted looking, and the garden, where the band performs in the summer evenings, is an enclosure where weeds and a few seats have taken the place of the forest which everywhere else dominates, except where it has been hewn to supply the place with fuel and timber. The church is-as in all Russian towns-a prominent object; lout the dreary cemetery, among the rugged stump-dotted ground in the outskirts of the town, is among the most desolate of the eitics of the dead. The river is at this spot about a mile in width, .nd on the opposite shore is bounded by lofty pine-clothed cliffs. Villages dot the river banks at intervals, and rolling wooded hills arise from the water's edges for the first few miles, though here and there the stream widens out and divides into a number of channels. The Russian peasants at these villages grow grain for their own maintenance, and feed a few bullocks on the meadow hay. They have firewood, fowls, milk, eggs, wild strawberries and raspberries, potatoes, cneumbers, \&e., for sale, but appear far from prosperous, and not mueh more comfortable in their ménagr than their neighbours, the Giliaks and Goldi, who lise by fishing and hunting. The

[^4]mosfuitoes, which darken the air, make life by no means a summer dream, and the bush fires, which often envelop the country in smoke during the warm weather, render any settlement in the baek comntry precarious. After leaving the river's mouth, everything in the form of a road ceases: the river is hereafter the only highway. Khabarofkn, 614 miles from Nikolaiessk, where there is a garrison, is destined to become a place of some imprortance, for here the River Usuri, which flows from Mantehmria in the south, joins the Amoor. Fior some days alter leaving this town the river banks are flat and uninteresting, and the earront divided into a number of channels by several low islands. At EkaterinNikolski, a Cousack village, the passage of the Hinghan mountains legin. The strean then becomes very rapid, and narrows to about a quarter of a mile in width. The seenery also changes entirely. Instead of flat, monotonoms, wooded shores, hills 1,000 to

a tiogoone encamiment.
1,500 feet in height rise precipitously from the water'y elge, on either side. Bireh, fir, and mometain oak cover them, while at intervals the steamer passes the outlets of valleys, which add to the beauty of the seene. For fifty miles this is the characteristie of the stream. Then there is a change after the Hinghan mountains are passed. The country opens out in swelling woodland interspersed with park-like patches of grass, so that the banks on either side look not molike the English downs. Russian villages multiply, and considerable quantities of grain are cultivated in the now more genial elimate of the south. Mantclut villages appear on the Chinese shore, while a few gaily painted junks belonging to the navy begin to strike the eye at the spot where the river forms the boundary between the Russian and Chinese territory; and at fifteln miles above Aigun, at the junction of the River Dsaya with the Amoor, is Blagovestehensk, the residenee of the Governor of Amoorland. It is, nest to Nikolaievsk, the prineipal town on the river, and eonsists of two streets running parallel to the river banks, the bouses rather

Russian They c to supp foreed them fr are the miles up very ple
*Am

Bireh, fir, of valleys, stic of the the country o that the ultiply, and ate of the inted junks forms the pove Aigun, he residence fiwn on the ouses rather
wide apart and built of logs. There is a publie garden and esplamade, and here is quartered a considerable garrison. The comutry aromed is without a tree, but many cattle are grazed in the vicinity, and though the summer is short, the hatit is sufficiently great to allow of melons ripening in the open air. Opposite the town is the village of Saghalin, where reside the Manteln traders, the Russian anthorities not allowing them to remain at night on the Russian side of the river. They bring for sale flour, eattle, tobaceo, \&e., in retum lor European goods, silver roubles, and Mexien dollars, which latter are sent south to Tsisishar, and melted into what the English merchants in China call "shoes" of silver, or "sycee." Along the Dsaya, which here joins the Amoor, are mumerous settlements of


VLEW UF NIKOLAIEVSK, TIE CAIITAL UF AMOOLLAND.
Russians, who have left their country on account of persceutions for conscience sake.* They eultivate great crops of grain, which the Government readily purehases, in order to supply the less favourel colonies on the Amoor, which, on their first foundation, were forced to rely for their stores on sea-borne eargoes from the Baltie, or on what reached them from Transbailkâlia. Low hills covered with fern, stunted oak, and bireh beechec, are the charaeteristic of the banks for many miles. Above Blagovestehensk, and for 200 miles up, the chalk eliffs of the White Mountains are the most remarkable features in a very pleasing country. Immense floeks of wild fowl frequent these parts of the river,

[^5]and sturgeon are caught in sueh mumbers as to render the preparation of caviare an important industry. Game is ulso abomaant and boldly pursued : villagers will even attuek the bear singlehanded on foot. Among the fur animals are line sables, trapped by the Aronchonee, a wild tribe who wander about this part of the country. Albazin is a village of some importanee. Gold is found in the vicinity, but the erowds who tloeked thither in the summer of 1567 were disappointed in the hope of wealth. Higher up the stream murrows to the breadth of the Thames at London, but in places it is very shallow. For $1 \geqslant 0$ miles it passes throngh the Little Hinghan Mountains, among lofty hills covered with dense pine lorests, and high limestone eliffs here and there risiug up from the water's etge. In general character, it reminded Mr. Bridgett of the Damube between Passau and Linz, but instead of ruined castles on the heights, there are only a few solitary post-houses. Rafts floating eattle down stream, and immigrants on their way to the lower river country, after a journey often of twelve to eighteen months from Southern Russia and the Caspian, are among the most familiar objects that break the monotony of an up-river voyage in this seetion of the Amoor. In the province of Transbaikatia, which is entered after passing the village of Gorbitza, the mountains recede from the river, and the comntry assumes a more settled aspect. The habitations are no longer confined to the banks of the river, and the country, which is diversified with pine and white birch-patehed hills, shows cousiderable cultivation. The frosts begin early, and in October the crops are often in the fields and even uncut. But the peasants consider this no hardship, as the first fall of snow enables them to carry the sheaves to the barn on sledges, and thus saves what they consiler much labour. Steamers can proceed to Chetah, but Stretensk is considered the head of navigation, for here the overland carriage road to Russia commences. $\Lambda$ few log-houses, barracks for soldiers, and a convict establishment, with the inevitable domed church, make up the town, and two miles further up stream is the port with dry doeks, workshops, and all other needful appliances for repairing the steamers and barges navigating the river. The few luropean articles in use find their way to this isolated town, partly: after a long water carriage up the river from the sea-board, and partly by the still more costly land journey across Siberia. The result is that everything not the produce of the comentry is dear. At the date of Mr . Bridgett's visit, loaf sugar was selling at an equivalent of 3s, per lb., Euglish bottled porter at ts. 6d. per quart, and other articles in proportion. It may be added, that the Cossack, laving proved but an indifferent colonist, the Government is doing its best to introduce German emigrounts into the Amoor Valley.

## Siberia Proper.

The continent of Asia is usually described as consisting of certein plateaux and lorslands. The plateaux are the eastern one, comprising the table-land of Tibet and the Desert of Gobi, and the western platean, or table-land of Iran, divided up into lesser aresis by various momatain ranges. The six great lowland areas are the Bucharian lowland, a wild sterile waste betwen the Caspian Sea and Lake Aral; the Syrian and Arabian lowland, the lowlands of Hindostan, the Indo-Chinese lowlands, through which the Irawaddy portance. of 1567 breadth it passes o forests, 1 general it insteal is floating a journey re among his section assing the assumes a the river, hills, shows re often in he first fall saves what is considered $\Lambda$ few table domed dry docks, s navigating town, partly he still mote oduce of the an equivalent 12 proportion. - Goverument
caux and lorr. fibet and the to lesser arens owland, a wild abian lowland, the Irawaddy
flows, Cambodia and Siam, the Chinese lowhonds, mad fimally Siberia, the lowhond of the north, and the greatest of them all. Indeed, the comntry may be deseribed as one immense phain, bounded on the south by momatains, but gradnally getting lower and lower as it appoaches the noth, matil along the shore of the Frozen Ocean it is one dreary llat, little raised above the level of the seat. liven there, however, as noted in the recent vorare of Professor Nordenskjoild, there is a difference. West of the Lema the forest keeps a considemble distance from the shore; but to the east of that promontory it :"preaches in the form of stunted pines almost to the water's ellge. It is also evilent that the country is, like most of the ciremmolar region, rising, for lagoons, only sepamted ly a few gards of land from the sea, aro common all along that coast, mud recent marine shells are found on the "tûndras," or mossy barrens along the coast, while the Liokov or Siberian Islands, though almost moknown, aro said to be scattered with the benes of oxen, horses, and other animats, at present umknown even in a fossil condition on the mainland, as well as with the remains of the mammoth, the fossil tusks of which still form an article of commerce. 'This mammoth was a wool-covered dwarf elephant, which there is every reason to believe lived in the nerthern part of Siberia, when the elimate was very much the same as it is now, and whose form has in a more of less complete shape been preserved to this day in the ice or frozen soil. The region to the west of the Yenisei presents one monotonous level, unbroken by hills of any sort, covered in its north-western parts by forests, though for the greater extent this province is steppe or uphand phain. Mueh of it consists of dry sand, salt marsh, and bogs; but the Bamabinskari Steppe, between the Rivers Irtish and Obi, has large birel groves, and is well suited for agriculture; while the soil of the Abakan Steppes, which lie along the River Abakan, a tributary of the Yenisei, is so rich that it requires no mamere. But even where the soil is unsuited for erops its fine pastures aftord abundance of fiod to the comotess herds of reindeer and cattle possessed by the natives. Lastern Siberia is more diversified, for in this part of the country the phains are intersected by offionts of the Altai, Sagan, and Stanovoi range of mountains. Much of it is suited for agrienlture, and the sonth is covered for the greater portion of its extent with magnificent forests. Vineyards are common. The fruit is excellent, and wine of a fair quality is made, though as yet it has not found a makket out of the comiry. The northern part, extendin; to the Aretic Ocean, is for the most part a dreary moss-covered "tûndra" on which, however, ean be pastured, at certain seasoms of the year, herds of reindeer, thongh the swarms of mosquitoes which, during the warm weather, infest this and every other portion of Siberia, render life almost intolerable to man; and the cestrils, or "bot," which attack the deer, combined with the disense which has broken out among them, is rapidly redueing the Samoyedes, Ostiaks, Voguls, and other tribes which depend on them, from aflluence to poverty.

Siberia was in early times muder Tartar prinees, but about 1550 it was subdued by the emissaries of the Czar, and has ever sinee been looked upon, not so much as an integral part of the Russian empire as a convict settlement, or a region to which colonists could be attracted only by offering special inducements. It has an offensive smack of the hulks bout it still, even though there are many free settlers in the comntry, and, indeed; the
peasants in the regrion east of the Ural look upon Siberians the perfect land of promise. Formerly a proprietor was empowered ly law to despated to Siberia any unruly serfs on his estate, and conld transport them thither without a trial. * It is, moreover, shat off either from the markets of the sonth ly the long land jomrney and the exclusivemess of China, and by the equally extensive rengon which separates it from larone; white tho great rivers which flow harough it, and afford water-ways in every direction, deloneln into the Aretic


A siberian dog sledge.
Seas. Therefore, unless the water-way which the enterprise of Wiggins and Nordenskjöld have opened up be found practicable, Siberia, until a railway links it to Russia proper, will remain a country mueh larger than Europe, and yet with only about three and a half million people-savage and civilised, bond and free-within its whole boundaries. Hence, with the exeeption of its mines, its trade is unimportant, and its manufactures fer and languishing. Spirits and leather are, however, produced to a considerable extent. Soap-boiling, tallow-melting, and the making of stearine candles employ a good deal of capital; while cotton and wool are woven into conrse fabries in some of the eities, which, like Irkutsk,

[^6]mond
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ordenskjöld proper, will half million Ienee, with hd languish-Soap-boiling, pital ; while ke Irkutsk,

Tobolk, Tjumen, Omok ( 1 . 20 ) , and Tomsk have from 17,000 to 27,000 inhahitants. The fisheries on the great rivers aftord orenpation for many of the native Siberians ; and at the fairs which are protiolically held husiness is done with the most remote parts of tarope and Asia. Kiakita is the meeting phee for the Chinese und Silnerim traders, and here is a school for teaching young merchants the Chincse languge. The mines are, however, the great sourees of wealth for Siberia at present. It one time all of them were Govermment

view on lake maikil., hilehia.
monopolies, and worked for Government alone, but of late most of them have lnen thrown opell to private individuals, the Crown simply exacting a royalty, and claiming particular gems as its perquisites. The result is that the Goverument not only makes more than it did in former times when it worked the mines on publie accoant, but by abandoning its monopoly has stimulated those direetly dependent on their working to greater energy than was evineed by public offieials sure of their salaries, whether the soil was searched after the most antique or most approved method, or whether it yielded little or much. Large sums are often made by mere peasants in the gold mines of the Ourals, and particularly in the sands of the River Nertela and its tributaries in Eastern Siberia;
indeed, some of the greatest Russian fortunes have been aceumulated from this somree. Silver, lead, platimum, copper (especially the form known as malachite), iron, coal, tin, cimabar (the wre of quicksilver), zine, bismuth, arsenic, sulphur, ahum, sal ammoniae, nitre, matron, and maphtha are also found in greater or less albundance in some parts of Siberia. Among precious stones the topaz, hyacinth, Siberian emerahl, beryl, onyx, red and green jasper, elrysolite, red garnet, lapis laznli, bakalite, and 'ipuls exist in greater or less abundance in different parts of this recgion.

In the Murinsk distriet emeralds of extraordinary brilliancy are often picked up, as well as other precions stones, in which this district is particularly rich. The aqua marina is in like mamer one of the prizes of the Nertchinsk distriet, famons for its copper mines, the lapis lazuli of the Kultuk Valley, and zireon of the vicinity of Lake Ilmenskoi. ('imathar is also abmolant, particularly in the vicinity of Nertehinsk, where the ore is worked by the worst elass of criminals, and if gold and quart/ mines are ever developed in the eountry, as undonbtedly they will he in time, the quicksilver will prove of great value in their working. Most of the gems are eut and polished in the conutry: The Russian peasant is not an inventor, but he has a genius for imitating. He has only to be told to go and do so and so, and in time it will be done. He will in this manner become a blacksmith, a wood carver, a enprist of painters, an eugineer, or a lapidary, provided that he is omly given time enough. IIe will watch the next workman to him using his saw, chisel, on file; then he will cantionsly imitate him, doing a little at a time, and nothing rashly. Next day he will show more skill, until in a few weeks he becomes a suffeiently skilful workman to he entrusted with takks requiring great judgment and even knowledge to execnte. In the Graniloi Fabrik, in Ekateriuburg, for example, the visitor is astonished to find men not above the rank of peasant, and in all likelihood eonvicts under serveillance, excenting the most beantiful engravings on beryl, amethysts, topaz, and emeralds, or carving on jasper and promyry vases with a skill which could not be exceeded, if equalled, in the great centres of fine art workmen in Lurope. Yet such intelligent labourers are -or were, at all events, in Erman's day, fifty years ago-not paid more than 3s. 8d. per month, with rations of a few pounds of black bread. Yet they are quite content with their lot, and toil on to make fortmes for the rich mine-owners, whe live in great state in fine mansions. Even the master workmen or overseers are only paid some $£ 11$ or tl: per annum, but they, like the ordinary labourers, have their perquisites, in the unrerognised pilferings which they can manage to effect among the treasures they handle. Indeed, if we are to aredit the gowsip of the Siberian towns, only a moiety of the gems discovered find their way into the hauds of their legitimate owners ; and thongh Government offieials are not allowed to own mines, it is reportel that they are not the most stoieal of those who find amethysts and topaz lying about momoticel too great temptations for ordinary virtue. The buying and selling of precious stones form a business which all classes dabble in. The visitors to a Siberian town are, soon after their arrival, waited on either with stones ent and unent, by the recognisel or by the irregular agents of the numerons lapidaries or dealers. The very children dog the new arrivals at every step with rare bargains wrapped up in bits of rag, either on their own aceornt or as the least suspeeted means of entrapping the marary traveller into purehasing at
m this souree. iron, coal, tin, sal ammoniac, some parts of eryl, onyx, red exist in greater
( picked up, as he aquai marina $s$ copper mines, cake Ilmenskoi. here the ore is c ever developed prove of great conutry. The He has only to 1 in this mauner lapidary, providel to lim using lis time, aud nothing mes a sufficiently 1 even knowledge sitor is astonisheel under serveillanee, and emeralds, or ected, if equalleel, sout lalourers are wore than 3s. 8d. are gnite content crs, who live in ers are only paid , have their pereffect among the c Silberian towns, of their legitimate it is reported that ig about umoticen recious stones furm vi are, soon after gnised or by the og the new arrivals their own aceornt nto purchasing at
what seems a low price stones worth next to nothing, or which may have been made by the skilful artifieer of artificial gems in Paris or Vienna, and exported to Sibecia. The stones are also set in the gold and silver obfained from the viciuity, though usually with less taste than is displayed in the cutting of the gems. The iron mines of Siberia have been worked for almost two eenturies, and at Neviansk the best iron is manufactured into artieles of domestic utility, which find their way into every part of the country; and among other uses is applied in the mannfacture of the coarse but efficient riftes in use among the poorer classes of Siberiams. At Tagilsk eopper ore is worked and smelted; and in the selool of design, founded by one of the wealthy family of Demidofs, the iron male out of the maguetic ore in the vicinity is finely lacquered and damascened by the pupils. Malachite vases, tables, and doors are also made here, the masses of the metal found often weighing several thousime pounds. Platinum was at one time cast into coins, but this use for it las been abandoned, and in all about $4,000 \mathrm{lbs}$. are now mined ammally, though the "mining" in reality consists in picking up the grains in which the metal is usually found. The fine " sable iron," so-called from being stamped with the figure of that anmal, is still produced at Tehernoistotehinsk in the Trals, aud is so good that its fame has even reached Birmingham and Sheffiell. Shot, shell, cutlery, and swords, and a humdred other articles, are also produced in the comntry, and would add still more to its wealth, did not the cost of transporting them to Europe impose an almost prohibitory tax on their competing in the markets of the world with goods which have not had to travel so far. The native nitre is utilised in making gunpowder.

The making of paper, glass, linen, cloth, earriages, earpets of goats' hair, swan-down coverlets, and other manufactures, are carried on in different places, thongh in no case have they attained great proportions. Mica is used in place of winlow glass; and on the Oka is found plumbago, said to equal that of the now almost exhausted Cumberland mines.* On the great rivers are built a vast mumber of boats, and other vessels suitable for their navigation; and on Lake Baikkall (p. 13) there is an Adminalty dockyard, and at Vlativostok-" the Dominion of the East"-a naval arseial, which is rapidly assuming great proportions, has heen established. The eorn brandy trade is under Government supervision, but is almost entirely in the hamts of the Jews. Aecording, to law, none of the natives are allowed to obtain it, but in reality, as happens under similar ciremmstances in America, they ouly cense to get dromk when they ean find no more furs to purchase the hignor. 'the same decree is in force in k:matchatka, but there the natives manage to proluce a more deleterions intoxication with a poisonous fungus, the "muck-a-moor," or Anumitu musctrtit. It is in large loses a nareotic poison, but in small quantities produces all the effects of alcohol. 'the authorities prohibit, as far as they can, the natives asing it, but so eager are the Koriaks for it, that, as it loes mot grow in their comertry, they will readily give valuable furs in exchange for it. They are, however, cconomical in its ase, and can reproduce the intoxication cansed in one individual by one fungus in a maner so peculiar and repulsive, that it is better not to enlarge on the point of Kamtehadal convivial economy. The fur trade is another great staple of Siberia, but is pursued often with great hardships to the matives toiling under their task-

[^7]masters, and as the hunting of wild ammals prevents their settling down to eivilised pursuits, its effect on the comntry camot be said to be in any way grood.

But Siberia is, in the minds of the world at large, associated with something more familiar than eithe" fuis or precions stones. As the writer has remarked in another place,* for a century and a half no tidings have come from the North more fumiliar than the news that so many people have been "sent to Siberia." Since the days of Peter the Great it has been the doom of tens of thonsands-grentle and simple, high and low, eriminals the vilest, patriots the loftiest, dreamers the most imprulent. In 1571, nearly 15,000 wended their way thither, and in 1579 , the number of "unfortunates" was even greater. The worl conveys to the mind of Southern Europe all that is most repulsive in penal banishnent. Instinetively the mind of the newspaper reader who eatehes the worl recalls the "lexiles of Siberia." Ite pictures to himself long dreary troops (p. 1i) of "unfortunates" trulging throngh the snow, or perishing of hunger and cold and misery long before they reach the mines of the Ural, or the jasper quarries of Ekaterinhmrg, He hears the clamking of the chains, the moan of the exiles, and the crack of the Bashkir 'Lartar's whip, as he drives along the victims of the "Third Seetion of the lmperial Chancellery," to lead a desolate existence and die a felon's death amid the destation of Siberia. Even in Russia there is a dread of the name which is not altogether inspired by its penal terross, with which the refractory subjects of the Czar are only too familiar. But, in reality, our ideas of Siberia are, like the majority of popular impressions transmitted by tradition, altogether beside the truth. With the winter's suows we should contrast the thowerecovered phains of smmmer, the luxuriant eorn-fieds and purple vingyards of antumn in Southern Siberia. Mines there ate, and very rich ones tow, but there are also moble cities, splendil residenees, and suciety as polished as any in Lurope. Siberia, indeed, is a general place for emptying the geols of Russia, and men are banish: to Siberia who would, in other parts of larope, merely salfer a few years' imprisoment. And of late years the traditional horrors of exile over the Crals have greatly altered for the better, though doubtless the worst class of eriminals are not treated with any great leniener: The erreat numbers sent at different times have leavened the whole of soeiety in Siheria. Indeed, if we take into account them and their descendants, as well as the convids whose sentences have expired, and who have remained in the country, they form the most numerous portion of the population. No traveller can have journeyed dong the post route leading from Nijnei Norgorod, over the Urals, aeross Siberia by way of Tjumen, 'Tobolsk, 'Tomsk, or Yeniseisk, without meeting long strings of exiles, some of whom have been on the road six, eight, or ten months, and sometimes, as in the case of those destined for the settlement in the Amoor Valley, Saghaliu, aud Kamtehatka, even two years, though, during the yen 1579, the exiles for the maritime parts of Eastern Siberia binse heen despatehed by sea. The worst are chained, but, except in the vicinity of the fowns through which they may pass, great lenieney is usually shown to the "unfortumates," as with kindly tolerance the exiles are styled by the country prople. The women and children-especially when mey are the families of the convicts, permitted to aceompany them-are usually conveyed in wagons, or, farther north, in reindeer or

[^8]ivilised or more another ar than eter the ad low, , nearly as even repulsive thes the . 1i) of l misery orinburg, Bashkir Imperial lation of inspired familiar. ansmitted atrast the f antumn lso noble indeed, is beria who I of late he better, lenienc: suciety in ell as the itry, they yed zlong, y way of some of he case of atka, evel of Easiern he vicinity vn to the ry people. permitted eindeer or
dog-sledges; while politieal prisoners of rank, when once they are clear of the large cities, may be seen eonsorting with the oflicers of the guard, and even sharing their meals in the block-houses along the route. Sometimes in passing through a fanatical village the aetual sharers in a conspiracy will be spat upon, and even stoned, by the loyally ignorant feasants; but more frequently the simple-minded people will bring them presents of food


PRINONERS ON THE ROAD TO SHERIA.
and other necessaries, and ask heaven to forgive and shelter them. At each station on the road there are barracks for the accommolation of the prisoners. These barracks are usually outside the villages, and are surrounded by high stockades of pointed trimks of trees, over which it is impossible to climb, though the precaution is always taken of laving the exiles well guarded by monted Cossacks. The daily march is not toilsome, and varies according to the mature of the road or the aecommodation for man and bast: it is usually about fourteen or fifteen miles. Nevertheless, on the long journess many die by the way-indeed, I have heard it atlirmed by Russians weil acquainted with the 163
system, that mot over four-fifths of those sent to the fir North or to Eastern Siberia ever reach their destination.

As soon as they arrive in Siberia the conviets are divided into three clisses. First come those condemned for the fonlest crimes known to the linssian law, such as would in England be awarded death,* or penal servitude for life, or for a long term of years. These colprits are doomed to work in the mines, and usnally have a hard lot. Such exiles are called in Siberia Kittorshuiki, a term no doubt derived from кétepov, the name given to a galley ly the Byzantine historians, as well as by the Greeks on the Black Sea at the present day. Next come the Lostunnjie na robolo, or exiles condemned for shorter periods, and for minor offences. Vagrants at large, rogues worthy of a more severe punishment tham imprisonment, prisoners senteneed by the communal courts, and, in former days, serfs condemned, as refractory labourers, ly the Govermment, on applieation by the proprictors of estates on which they lived, as well as minor politien offenders, who are well out of harm's way, comprise the bulk of these "unfortmates." The place they are sent to is proportioned to their turpitule, the worst offenders being dispatehed farthest from the houndaries of Russia in Europe, for instance, to the shores of the Aretie Sea, $\dagger$ and the Bastern provinees, while the lighter culprits are permitted to settle down in Western Siberia, immeliately to the east of the Urals. This elass of conviets are usually condemned only for short terms, and are designed for colonists on the expiration of their term of forced labour. Ween before that date they are often employed in the Government service, more like ordiany labourers than as legal slaves. The third and highest class of
 are considered to have expiated their offences by the time they arrive in the country, and are at once established as proper colonists, sometimes in villages already existing, at another time in new ones laid out for them.

Siberian society, constituted to a great extent of such elements as these deseribed, is, very gemial, and frequently refined, but not moral. Many of the convicts are political offenders, some of the highest education and nobility of character; but a vast number who have gained a certain amount of freedom, or, whose sentences being expired, have settled down in the conntry, are of quite amother class. Aetual eriminals have no place left them for repentance; they are always under the gaol ban. But offenders of the higher class, and 'specially political exiles, are ravely scowled on. Russian society is the most tolerant in the world, and since political exiles have increased, the front of their offending has ceased to be visible. They are after a var or two reecived into the best company, and in every way oldtain the treatment their rank and eluention would have entitled them to at home. It is only the worst offembers who are not allowed to be aceompanied by their wives and families; and as many of them are people of rank, the balls, clubs, and card-parties of Tobolsk or Tomsk are very different from what similar social gatheriugs recruited from the detcmus of Port Arthur would have been. In Tasmania (Vol. IV., p. 117) we have seen how little room the "lag" had left for repentanee. In Siberia-muless he be an actual ariminal in the striet sense of the term-he is not considered to

[^9] at another escribed, is re political number who lave settled place left. the higher the most ir olfending. t company, ve entitled acompanied malls, clubs, gatherings: (Vol. IV.: , Siberia-onsidered to
have dome anything to merit even remorse. Of counse, there is in the eombry a lare amount of the worst eriminal chment. All the siberim malortmates lave not ben Nihilists or political olfenders. Hence the mad taint attaches $t$ many villages, and evera to the large cities. But with such peoble tho tweller does not ara mach in contact and the severe police regulations serure han against any serious mans.ane from their attentions. Civil and military oflicials are the principal people, and anoug them lifi sems one contimal romm of pleasure, especially in South Siberia, where the summer an: :antumn climate is exeellent, thongh. as elsewhere thoughont the comity, the winter cold is severe, but dry and healthy. To those who have lived in the emontry in any other capacity than that of eonvicts, the mame which to Finome is redolent of all unsavoury memories recalls only sweet reminiseences. The families of oflicials will "ften, even in St. Petersburg and Moseow, talk longingly of the pleasant days of "sibir," and the "grool society" of, say Imatsk, is as refined as that of any Enropean rity ef th. -ame size. "The interior of the honses," writes M. Wahl, "is more comfortable, l'arisian fashions more brilliantly represented, and the champagne sparkes thre in greater profusin and betfer quality than in many a fashionable saloon of the nost important buronan cities. While in burope people think twiee before they start on a visiti of a fer miles' distance, a ball in Siberia sometimes brings topnther people from distances of eighty to one hundred and more miles across rivers, hills, precipiees, and over roads and bridgre, which would terify a European bronght up in the luxuries of a refined civilisation." The Russian Guremment have offered special inducements for opening up, Siberia to settlement, but at the same time have not, until recently, shown much iuglination to lessen its isolation from the rest of the world. The peenliar nature of the population wonld naturally aceont for this hesitation at making escope from it any easier than it is. And the causes which rombuce to the remoteness of Siberia from the word at large is the fact that thouph it is premeated from south to north by great rivers which form water-ways throughout the entire country, it has no grod seaports, for the lenisei, Obi, and Lena, with the smaller rivers, thow into the Aretic Ocean. Whe Obi is, indeed, the largest river of the Old Word, being 3,000 miles long, and draining an area of about $1,300,000$ square miles, a country only inferior in size to the Valleys of the Amazon and La Plata in South Imerica. The Yenisei is not mach smaller, ruming as it does from the confines of China wer a conrse of $2, S 00$ miles, while not to ennmerate smaller draners of halt uf $A$ sia, the Lena tlows for 2,500 miles, and drains an area of soto, (0n0 square miles. All wh these rivers are important water-ways into the conntry, and are the seat of plenteons fisheries. either at their mouths during the summer, or throughont their entire courses.

Of the Ienise eomntry Mr. Seebohn gives a most attractive accombe He deseribes in graphic terms the roarls covered with thousands of pack-horses carrying groods between one town and another ; the immense rivers flowing throngh lanf a eontinent, but as yet not a grarter utilised-the highways for "country vessels" in the summer, and great stedge-roads when frozen over during the winter. In the valley of the Yenisei dried fish can be bonght for "almost mothing;" gronse are fol. a brace;

[^10]exeellent beef, $9!2$ a pound ; and a little further south, at Krasmoiarsk, a ton of whent can be bought for the same priee wo give for a hundredweight. So extremely cheap are corn and hay on the great steppes between Tomsk and Tjumen, that the hire of horses is only a halfpemy per horse per English mile. At Yeniseisk, a town in the midst of an immense forest, a ship's mast of hard lareh, sixty feet long, three feet in diameter at the base, and eighteen inches at the apex, can be bought for a sovereign, and humdreds can be delivered in a week.

Captain Wiggins and Professor Nordenskjoild are hardly less enthusiastic, though as a


VIEW OF OMSK, SIHEHIA.
field for commerce Ciptain Wiggius is understond to give the preference to the Obi. The latter distinguished explorer tells us that near the mouth of the Yenisei, though still far north of the Aretic circle, they were astonished at the luxuriance of the meadows overflowed by the summer floods. The fertility of the soil and the immeasurable extent and rielmess in grass of the pastures, drew forth from one of the walrus hunters who aceompanied Dr. Nordenskjoidd a ury of envy. This man was the owner of a little patch of ground among the fells in Northern Norway; but when he saw the meadows that no ereature pastured, and no secthe mowed, he expressed a longing for the splendid land "our Lord had given the Russians." Daily and hourly "we heard the same ery repeated, and in even louder tones, when some weeks after we eame to the grand old forest between Yeniscisk and Turukhansk, or to the nearly uminhabited plains on the other side of the

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f wheat heap are f horses midst oi diameter ign, and ligh as a

Krasnoiarsk, covered with deep tcherno-sem (black earth), equal without doubt in fertility to the best parts of Scamia [Southern Sweden], and in extent surpassing the whole Scandinavian peninsula. This judgment, formed on the spot by a genuine though illiterate agrienlturist, is not without interest in forming an idea of the future importance of Siheria."*

Since it has been provel that during the latter ent of smmer and the berimning of autumn the ice, during most semsons, is driven sufficiently off the coast by the force of the floods of their rivers to allow vessels to reach their mouths, the Russian Government have made some efforts to utilise the diseoveries made by Nordenskjöld and Wiggins.

Obi. The h still far lows overextent and ho accome patch of ss that no endid land y repeated, st between side of the

ostiak hesters of shema.
As the result of their explorations in 1975, it has been fomm that by the expenditure of a few thousands the Angora, a tributary of the Yenisei, the mavigation of which is at present difficult, on accomnt of the eataraets or rapids, might be made navigable to Lake Baikkill (p. 13), and to conneet the Obi with the Yenisei, and the Yenisei with the Lena. Thus, a territory calculated by Von Baer to exceed that drained by the rombined river trilutaries of the Danube, Don, Dneiper, Dneister, Nile, Po, Bbro, Rhone, and all the rivers which flow into the Black Sea, the Sea of Marmora, and the Mediterranean. "Part of the territory in question," Prolessor Nordenskjöld remarks, "no doubt lies to the north of the Aretic eirele; but here, too, there are to be found the most extensive and the finest forests on the globe. South of the forest region proper level stone-free
*"The Arctic Voyages of A. E. Nordenskjöh," by Alex. Leslie (1879), pp. 209, 300.
plains, eovered with the most fertile soil, stretch away for lmadreds of lengnes, which only wait for the phomgh of the cultivator to yich the most abmant harvests; and further south the lenisei and its tributaries flow throngh regions where the grape ripens in the "pen air. As I write this I have befure me a bunch of splendid Siberian erapes." The trate by this ronte is not yet fully orgatised ; the charts are imperteet, and a class of vessels which can prodently modertake the voyage has not yet been provided. Hence the failure of the ill-ional vessels, which, withont proper ice-masters or iestructions, attempten during 1sig to reach the Yenisei-unly one of them succeeding. but in previons valts many vessels have gone thither and done a probitable trade. The Siberian merehants have even built live shipe on the rivers, two of which reached laghand last year, mud three are at present on their way. An idea of the profitable character of the tratlie which might be cartied on may be gathered from the fact that Captain Wiggins on one of his voyages tork out live tons of salt bonght at 15s. per ton, and that be sold this for nearly Clis per tom. On the return vogage he ballasted his ship with fine back-lead. Wheat ean he bought for gis. a ton on the Yenisei, which in Enghand would command 515 or G16 per ton. Bat matil the trade of the rivers is properly organsed, and warehouses for storing the eargo to be shipped are buit at their mouths, the new sea route which may by-and-by revolutionise the trade of Siberia ought not to be judged too harshly, or allowed to raise over sanguine expectations. Meantime, Professor Nordenskjöld, by his voyage, comsiders that he has established the practicability of the route even to the Lena, and during the smmer of loi9 a Russim expedition desended the Olif from Tobolsk, in order to buoy the month of the river, and establish custom-house regulations in view of the expected inerease in the trade of the combry.

There is, doubtless, a preat future for Siberia. The mighty rivers permeating the comutry on to the very comfines of Momgia will, when the new Aretic route is thoronghly opened up, form great highways down which the wool, beef, timher, wheat, wine, and ores of Siberia, as well as the fossil ivory fomd on its shores, will find their way to Europe. Nor bas the disciphine of the penal settlements of the combtry which, after very exhaistive inguiries on the subjeet, I em aflim to be in malern times, as a rule, firm without harshness, heen without good effeet, for in no part of his dominions is the Czan more allored ; and it is noted that the most tumbent characters often become, after a few years of "Sibir," ducile citizens and industrious farmers.* By-and-ly a railway will penctrate the comutry, and with a che:per mode of transit for its goods than sledges or pack-horses, Siberia will be propenly apmreciated in the world. Lven at present it is a far richer country than Canada, and with a climate very much the same. In its isolation from the wonll it is not worse sitnated than were the Western United States before railways genetrated them, and the lakes utilised as a water-way to the coast; while its capabilities and varied products are very much greater, and its internal natural commmications far superior to any part of North America, if we except the Mississippi Valley.

[^11]s, which ts ; :and pe ripens gralue" d a chass dence the attemptenl ious yours merchants year, :und thic which me of his for neally Wheat can 15 or $!16$ houses for oute which oo harshly; mlenskjoid, ate even to c Oli from regulations meating the thoronghly , wine, and heir way to 1, after very
a rule, firm ie C\%ar more few years of enctrate the pack-hores, a far richer on from the ore railway: ; while its eommunicaValley.

Hill: "Travels
1isise" (1860); ars in Sibrua

## CHAITR:R II.

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Is a former work * a summary was given of the mamers and institutions of the Chines: In the sketch which follows we propose ontlining the general geography of their combtry, and supplying some account of its matural resoures and industries so far as these hase mit been already deseribed in the accome refereed to. A comentry contaning by the hast estimates-and the best are only estimates- $3,901,6,67$ spare miles, $\dagger$ posesses many dimates and varied features. But in greneal tems it may be said that Chima is a great *隹ing basin "survoundel by lofty momatains on the north-west and south-west, with the sea in the south and south-east." Within this area there is hilly and level comitry. There are momatains with peaks $; 0,000$ feet alhove the level of the sea; but in the nurthern and midland provinces the snow rarely lies long or falls to a great extent, white in the sonth it is almost monown. The physieal features of the rountry are equilly sarica. In parts of it there are fine champaign tracts like Founce and Begrium, swampy districts like Holland, and monntainons regions like Swit\%erlam, These varions distriste, embracing comery from the hot low thats by the seashore to the high cool uplambs of Mongolia, produce everything that can be desired for the sustenanee, comfort, and luxury uf man: hence the disinclination of the Chinese to have any deatings, more than they can help, with "the outer barbarian," whose goods they do not recquire, though theirs are coveted by him. The country has mincral resourees surpassing those of lanope and Anstalia, and not far short, if they were properly developed, of those of some of the Western States of America in some varicties of metals. Tho coal-fields of North China alone have been estimated to ocenpy an area of 53,000 square miles, which is nemrly seven times that of those of Great Britain, and more than two-thirds that of the Unitod States. Iron-stone and iron ore of various kinds are found in every province in such almudance that the Chinese seldom work any but the finest lhack magnetie. Copper, lead, tin, silver, and gold are so plentiful that searedy a district of the empire is withon: them, while the water commmications, either matural or artificial, are so well distributed that my portion of the empire can be reached chealy, if not quickly, even withont the railways, of which the Government so obstinately oppose the buibling. + Nor are the people oceupying this great region unworthy of the land which has for ages been indisputably theirs. As diplomatists, we have the authority of Sir Frederick Brace for saying that they are equal to any in Burope; as we have more than once experiencel, they can hold their own with our most expert statesmen; and, as recent events have proved, Russian art is, when matehed against Mongol patience, of but little aceomt. Their

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MAI OF CHINA AND SOME OF THE ADJOLNLXG COLNTLIES.
convenic nore I centurie which of the in the of Euro the Jap are, like they
merchants, in spite of the fuet that their wineriene is limitel to the mations visiting their ports or living in the vicinity of their comatry, are proverbially keen traders. From the first day Europe enme in contact with then it found its mateh, nud of late years, as their knowledge has extended, the Chinese merehants are coping sucecssfully with ons own in every department of trale, and, indeed, in many eatses graining ground on them. Chima is no longer the comutry in which fortunes can le made rapidly, and thongh they object to change their ancient habits at the bidding of the new comers, the literati are not insensible to the alvantages of picking up such knowledre from us as they find it


VEW IN THE VLLIAGE OF POLO-HANG, JRUVINCE OI CINTON,
convenient to use, while the body of the people, as we shall presently see, are not much more prejudiced against fureign imovations than some mations nearer home. For enturies their system of competitive examinations has been pushed to an extreme which the most enthusiastic of the advocates of this plan for fixing the literary status of the candidates for prblie offiees have never dreamed of introdneing into Britain; and in the few instanees in whieh their young men have sought edueation in the universities of Europe and Ameriea, they have been found, if not so eager to seize every novelty as the Japanese, not inferior in ability to the best students of Nippon. The mandarins are, like all bureauerats, jealous of losing by the introduction of a new system what they have gained by an old one-conservative of their privileges, and bigoted to a degree 164
which has often bronght evil on China. But the people at lurge nre-it is the opinion of Mr. Williamson and all who have travelled much in the comery-shrewd, painstaking, and indomitable. They ure intelligent, decile, nud orderly, und if not so polite as tho Jnpanese, often what seems rudeness is dictaten by invincible curiosity-in its way In species of intelligence-by a misunderstanding on the part of the visitors, or, at worst, by the malicions surgestions of the official mistoerncy, few of whom can tolerate "the fuacign devils."

## Pirsten. Geoghaphe

The great delta phain of the north-east is the most noticeable feature in its topograplay. It varies in breadth from 150 to 500 miles, and extends for about 700 miles in a southerly direction. The greater portion of it is generally below the level of the Yellow River; henee the disastrons inmudations whiei often accompany the rise of that rivel. It is, indeed, as much the delta of the Yellow River, and to some extent of the Yang-tse-Kiang, as ligypt is the daughter of the Nile; and owing to the great quantity of mud brought down by the Yellow River, and the absence of oeean currents, this delta is rapidly inereasing, and the adjoining sea shoaling. As an instanee, Mr. Douglas, from whom we have taken these facts, notes that the town of Pootai was one le-that is, about one-third of an English mile-west of the senshore in the yeur $2: 20$ n.c., and in 1730 it was 130 le inland, thus griving a yearly eneromment of about 100 feet. Again, Sen-shway-Kow, on the Pci-ho, was on the seashore in 500 a.b., and it is now about cighteen miles inland. This delta plain is remarkable for its amular form, and for the fact that it encloses within it the momatanous distriets of the province of Shan-tung. We have mentioned the inundations which, directly or indirectly, have exerted such an inthenee on the social life and history of China. The rivers, of which there are many throughout the country, are in general confined within low banks, and though efforts are made by means of embankments and other artifieial barricades to prevent both them and the eamals overflowing, the industrious agrieulturists are not always able to prevent disistrous flools and inundations. The two greatest rivers in the comntry are the Yang-tse-Kiang, and the Hoang-Ho, or Yellow River. The first mentioned is well known to commerce, but the second has attained an evil reputation, on account of the great immatations of the low comutry which it has cansed. In the neighbourhood of the city of Kiu-fung-loo it enters the great Eastern plain of China, and so often has it changer? its course between this district and the sea, that the Chinese know it by the expressive name of the "Sorrow of Han." In 2,000 years it has altered its course nine times, flowing into the sea by as many different beds. In 1851, 185:, and 1853, it overflowed its banks, submerging a country twelve miles wide, and foreing its waters into the narrow chamel of the Ta-tsing River, with the result that it is rapidly eating away the banks of its new course, in time to precipitate a still greater eatastrophe than that which it was the e:unse of nearly thirty years ago. The Yanc-tse-Kiang flows for 2,900 miles from the mountains of Tibet, and drains a basin of 515,000 square miles. It is navigable for steamers 1,200 miles from its month, but nstuking, .e as the its way at worst, rute "the
re in its for about lelow thur mpany the d to some owing to absence of raling. As that the est of the y a yeurly vas on the is remarkpountainous ons which, history of in general ments and industrious

The two or Yellow Ittained an lieh it has ant Pastern id the sea, In 2,000 erent beds. miles wide, the result tate a still ago. The ins a basin mouth, but
beyond this distance it ecases to berome mavigalle fior any but light mative eratt, the rapids which oecur in the deep mountain gorges between Kwai-chow nul I-chang effectumlly larring the way ( 1 p. 25,25 ). The Grund Camb-one of the many ramals in Chinn-was anstructed as carly as the seventh century, and as in all parts of its courso there is a perecptible current, it is usually elassed among the rivers of the Celestinl empire. Commoncing at the town of Hang-chow, it traverses 700 miles of eomentry, matil it mites with the Pei-ho, near the town of Lin-tehin Chow. It varies in brealth, but is comected with so many offshoots and branches, that it plays a most importmint share in the conmerce and agrienlture of the country which it ruins. Its banks are lined with eities, towns, and villages, and owing to its richness of soil, and the easy means of communicntion which the Canal allords, the phin of the Gramd Camal is one of the most thiekly populated in all the country. Since the 'Taeping relellion, some parts of this important public work have been allowed to fall into deeay, with the consequenee that regions onee prosperous now look arid and barren, and villages and towns which for hundreds of years were the homes of busy hives of the most industrions of men, are now falling into deeay, and, in some instances, are almost deserted. It is true that the authorities often talk abont mudertaking the repair of the Canal. One savant has written a treatise on its hydrology extending, it is said, to forty volumes, and other oflicials are almost equally industrious in compiling reports. But the genius of Yu, the famons engrineer, who deepened the channels and drained the that, is yet wanting to these literary hydrologists, and menntime China is beeoming a desert in its very best portions. As a speeimen of the reckless poliey adopted, it may be noted that thare used to be a briek-faced dyke at Kaochiasen, but the bricks were used to build a wall aroumd Chingehiang-pu, on the old course of the Yellow River. Aceordingly, shouhl its waters chance to return, incaleulable dimage would be done.* Another large river is the LIan Kiang, whieh is remarkable for the fact that, contary to the rule, it is marrow at its month, and widens as it is aseended, and in that, during the summer, its waters are high above its bmks, and would therefore overtlow the surrounding country were it not for the artificial harriers which confine it, and afforl admirable facilities for irrigation. Sckiang, in the south, the Pei-ho (p. 29), which is the highway to Pekin, the Men, and Chu-Kiang, or Pearl River, are among the other prineipal water-ways of China. On all of these rivers there is an immense local traflic. They are eovered with boats, and near the cities with thousands of floating dwelling-houses, in whieh are born, live, and die a large population, whose labits and mode of existenee form some of the most curious features in the strange life of China. Mr. Thomson deseribes the "eomintry boats" being towed along the banks, and even through the rupids by the united efforts of from fifty to two hundred men. These traders are natives of the neighbouring villages, and gain their living by this laborions work, and by pillaging the numerons wreeks which are thrown upon the shores of the lang-tse-Kiang and other rivers. . By law, all such wreeks become the property of the first person who finds them. Dven were a junk to drift from its mooring, and in sight of its owner be carried to the opposite bank, the law would authorise the first man Who seized it to appropriate it, provided the erew were not aboard. In ancient times

[^13]the upper part of the Yang-tse-Kiang was unavigable, owing to its bod being eompletely bocked up with roeks. But the beal inhabitauts set to work and deared out the chanud partially. 'They have, however, bern careful, Mr. Thomson notes, with true Chinese instinet, to leave some of the most dangerous ubstruetions, so as to profit by the fees paid for hanlage, and out of the pillage of wrecks. Some day this river may form a ronte betwern hadia and China, but meantime the merehants who do business on its upper water's must be men of counage and energy, for to shoot some of the rapits in this part of the Yaug-tse-Kiang is a feat which requires no orlinary nerve. Scareely a week passes but


VIEW IN THE VILLADE OF WONG-TONG, lhovince of canton.
some trader loses his all in these widd entarats. But if he survive he calmly begins life anew, in the same perilous occupation in which the savings of years have been engulfed. The lakes of China are numerous, for not only to they drain emsiderable tracts of conntry, but, as in the case of the Toong-ting in Hominn, and the Poyang in Kiang-si, they mite with the great lang-tse-Kiang, and aid in increasing the moble network of water-ways which permeate the most populous provineces of China. The Poyang Lake is said, during the rainy seasm, when it reeeives the superlluons waters of the lang-tse-Kiang and other rivers, to be mearly 300 miles long: then a great porton of the country in the vieinity is a perfect morass. It this season it is a wild stormy water, and when the wind bows its waters lask with such fury :grainst the bank on which Nar-chang-Foo stauds, that a strong stone harbour of refuge for vessels has lomen constructed. But in the dry season it,
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Imly begins en engulfed. of country, , they unite water-ways said, during hg and other vieinity is a nd blows its hat a strong y season it.

waters abate so rapidly that, in the course of a few weeks, the Poyang Hoo, to use the words of Archdeacon Gray, "resembles nut, so much a lake as a river, vinding its course towards the Yang-tse-Kiang between low wanks of mud." During the dry season the peasants erect huts of straw on the land frem which the water has receded, in order to be on the spot to cut down the coarse grass and reeds which the rich alluvial yields in great quantity. These they stack in front of their huts, to be afterwards sold in the neighbouring villages as fuel for the winter. The waters of this lake abound in wild fowl, chiefly geese, ducks, teal, divers, and pelicans, which are captured by the native fowlers, and sold in the cities that stnd the banks of the great river which flows near by. These birls are captured in a carious fashion. "Sometimes," writes Dr. Gray, "he [the fowler] fixes two gingals [native firelocks] in a boat which is constructed to sit low in the water, aud, laying hold of the stern, wades or swims, as the case may be, gently pushing the boat towards the wild fowl. When he has come within gumshot he discharges his gingals into the midst of the birds by means of a long fuse. At other times the fowler floats a number of baskets on the water, and when the wild fowl have become used to them, and swim close to them without fear, he covers his head with a similar basket and wades into the lake. By a gradual approach he tries to get into the very centre of the flock; and then he suldenly stretches out both hands, and eenerally succeeds in capturing : brace of them, which he at ouce deposits in a creel on his back." * The Toong-ting Lake is studded witl islands, one of which, much visited by the pious Chinese, contains many temples in honour of Buddha, and is the abode of numerous priests of his sect, who not only serve the altars of Buddha, but also those of the Toon-ting idol, or King of the Lake. On the "Golden Island" the tea plant is grown in great abundance; but as the tea grown in this locality is considered to prolong life, a quantity of it is amually sent to the Imperial Palace at Pekin, for the use of the Emperor and Court. Tai-Hoo is another large lake-the cireumference is estimated at 260 miles-surrounded by a pleasant country, producing large quantities of cotton, green tea, silk, and plastic clays, of which some of the best "china" is made. Three of the Chinese lakes are accounted sacred. These are the Toon-ting and Poyang-already noticed-and the Hoong-chak, which is in the same province as the last-mentioned one, namely, in Kiang-su. State worship is paid to the spirits which are supposed to preside over them, and on such occasions a sheep and a pigeon are sacrificed to the genius of the lake. "An imperial communicaion addressed to the genius of the lake is also read aloud, and afterwards committed to a sacred fire."

## The Climate.

The climate of China is a rather comprehensive phrase. One might as well taltof the climate of Lurope, for a comntry stretching through twenty-six degrees of latitude and twenty-seven degrees of longitule, must vary as to its atmospheric character

[^14]o use the its course eason the orler to Is in great ghbouriug iettly geese, :old in the birds are wler] fixes the water, ushing the his gingals wher floats d to them, and wades the flock: capturing : Toong-ting se, contains of lis sect, ol, or King ndance ; but is aunually Tai-Hoo is y a pleasant s , of which nted sacreal. which is in worship is oceasions a communicaommitted to
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in different quasters of it. One peeuliarity about it is, that thongh much of China lies within the tropies, its temperature is, even in the height of summer, much lower than that of countries lying in the same latitude. For instance, though Pekin is a degree suth of Naples, its mean annual temperature is ten degrees lower than that of the Italian eity. In the northern provinces the winter cold is severe, and the midsunmer lieat severe. In July, August, and September the interior and constlyiug towns in the southern provinces are almost furnaess; and this is the period at which the drealed typloons arrive, as well as those virulent and epidemic diseases for which the country has obtained so fatal a notoriety. In the extreme south the southern monsoon leegins to blow in March or April, and brings with it from the heated ocean anmual rains, so heavy that their fall averages seventy inches per annum. This humidity, combined with the heat and the waut of all sanitary regulations in the crowded houses and towns, makes parts of the country during the warm season very unhealthy. Famines rage at intervals, owing to the droughts and inundations, while the typluons that visit the southern coast cause immense destruetion. On the estuary of the Canton River the authorities caleulated that, in 1862, upwards of 00,000 people were lerwnel, or killed by falling loonses during one of these hurricanes, which lasted fourteen

- From the south to tha east they rase, and are not unknown in the north as far ?s Shanghai. On page 3? is engraved a view showing one at Hong Kong in the sunth. But it may be said that as a rule the climate of the northern and inland provinees is pleasant, and sometimes even more than plasant. During the winter season, that is, from October to Felruary, little or no rain falls in the south. Towards the end of September the north-eastern monsoon sets in, and continnes to April, when, as alrealy noted, it is succeeled by the sonth-western monson, invariably accompanied by rain, which, on reaching the coast, assumes the form of thick fogs, ending in heary shuwers, refreshing at once to the parehed earth and to man, exhausted by the heat of the dry air. At the change of each monsoon thunder-storms are frequent, but are usually neither of such long continuation nor so severe as those with whieh Great Britain is oeeasionally visited.


## Tue Puoyincts.

Roughis fuentig, China (Maps, pp. 5, 24) may be divided into two great halves, the one mountainous, hiif ; fitle developed, thongh rieh in minerals, lut sparsely peopled; the other eonsisting of phains and fertile valleys, highly tilled, and supporting, unless we except the Valley of the Ganges, the densest agrieultural population in the world. The country thus physeally distinguished is Chiua proper, exeluding Tibet, Tartary, and other dependencies, Which we shall consider as Chinese colonies seperately, or which, as in the ease of iormosa, have been already noticed. The geography of the eighteen provinces, into which, fir : ilministrative purposes, the empire is divided, need not be gone over in great detail, for every map and every sehool geography narrates their bald characteristics with wearisome conscientir, ness. Lach of these provirzes constitutes a separate Government, with a capital whech is a city of the first class, and is again divided into departments, distriets,
and hundreds, which in their turn are administered from eities of lower grade in the civie hierarehy of China, the land being so apportioned that each city bas under it an area corresponding to its class or rank. The lord paramount of the whole empire is the Emperor or "Tien-tze" himself, unless in cases in which a viceroy, who superiutends two provinces, forms another step between the governors and the throne. Under them come the provineial governor-generals. Their authority is again delegated to minor officials, who further

a mosqute in pekin.
divide their responsibility with smaller mandarins, until at length the Imperial mandate, or that of the ministers who act in his name, is brought to bear upon "the mass of the people." Of the provinces, Kan-su, Se-chuen, and Yun-nan are the largest, all the other fifteen being very much smaller, though it ought to be added that their importance is often in an inverse to their area in miles.

In Pe-Chili, for example, in which is situate the city of Pekin, there are said to be nearly as many people as in Great Britain, though its area is under 59,000 square miles. Among these are many Mohammedans. In the capital itself it is believed that there are over 20,000 Moslen families; and in Pow-ting Foo, the chief provincial city, about 1,000
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A PAGODA, OR MEMORIAL TOWER, IN TIIE PROVINCE OF QUEI-CHOW, CHINA.
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followers of the Prophet. The whole province is rich in coal, as yet untouched for commercial purposes. "At Chai-tang," writes Baron von Richthofen, "I was surprised to waik over a regular suecession of coal-bearing strata, the thickness of which, estimating it step by step as I proceeded gradually from the lowest to the highest strata, exceels $i, 000$ feet." These beds are of anthracite, a valuable form of hard coal found in other parts of the province. Silver and gold also exist, but not in large quantities; but whent, oats, millet, pulse, and other agricultural produce are plentiful, and an immense quantity of pears, apples, plums, apricots, peaches, persimmons, and melons is brought down to Pekin.

In Shan-tung, which, unlike the last-named province, is mountainous, with fertile valley's, is situated the fountain Tai-shan, which has been famous in Chinese history for 4,000


NORTING TEA IN CHINA.
years, and for long has been the resort of hundreds of pilgrims. But though there are fertile basins here and there, and many minerals, the province is not as a rule a prosuctive one.

Shan-se, though rich in minerals, is so deficient in agrieultural capabilities that all kinds of food command high prices; and in the mountainous districts the people are often subjected to famine, and at the best of times to semi-starvation. Professor Douglas deseribes meat as being a rare luxury, and even salt fish, which is the usual substitnte for meat, as being consumed only by the wealthier classes.

Honan is, on the other hand, a very fine agricultural region. The province is said to contain 30,000 square miles of coal-fields, for the most part untouched. So abundant, however, are coal and labour, that the best anthracite is sold in some parts of the province for 7 d . per ton at the pit's mouth. Lead is also abundant. The prefecture of Hwae-king, north of the Yellow River, consists of a fertile plain, described as "rendered park-like by numerous plantations of trees and shrubs, among which thick bosquets of bimboo contrast with
the gloomy groves of cypress." The population is extremely dense, but by no means so numerous as in Kiang-s", which, with its $38,000,000$ souls, is one of the most thickly populated parts of the world. It is magnificeutly watered by the Grand Canal, and by several rivers and lakes, and containing scarcely any hills, and no mountains, is, throughout the greater part of its area, well fitted for agriculture. Within its bounds is the famous city of Nankin, once the seat of the Chincse Court, and at a later day the stronghold of the Taiping rebels. Two other cities are so beautiful that they have their name embalmed in the Chinese proverb) which says that "above them is Paradise, below are Soo and Hang"-that is, Soo-chow Foo and Hang-chow Foo. Shanghai and Ching-Kiang are also well-known cities, and likely in time to rise to be places of great importance.

The province of Ngan-whi is scarcely less densely populated, nor is its agricultural wealth inferior. "Peace and plenty" the Chinese call it, and from Baron von Richthofen's account the name is well deserved. He assures us that the exuberant fertility of the soil in the lower parts of the province is not exeelled by anything he had seen in temperate climates. The embankments and system of irrigation deserve the highest praise, the result of the care exercised in utilising its natural advantages being that on the Kiang River the sraveller may walk for miles through fields of hemp, the stalks of which are cleven to thirteen feet high, or through cotton patches scarcely less exuberant. The Shung-gan Kiang is the principal river of the province, and down it float to Hangchow the immense loads of tea produced farther to the north and east.

In the province of Kiang-si is grown the celebrated "Moyune" green tea; and the black Kaisow teas are brought down from the Ho-kow district by the River Kin to Juy-hung on the Poyang Lake; while E-ning Chow, a city in the neighbourhood of which the best black teas of this part of China are grown, can be reached by another navigable stream, the whole trade finally concentrating as in a focus at Wooching on the lake so often mentioned.

In Che-kiang there are lovely valleys, rich and well cultivated, but few minerals, and none in great quantities. On the plains along the coast is reared much silk, and on the hilly country are produced large quantities of tea. Opposite Ningpo, one of the chicf cities, and a treaty port, lies the mountainous island of Chusan, twenty-one miles long, and about fifty in circumference, in no way very remarkable, except that on its south side stands the walled city of Tinghai. Ningpo, though, as early as 1522 , chosen as a place of refuge by the Portuguese, who, however, were twenty years later massacred by the enraged Chinese, has proved rather disappointing as a centre of trade, many of the most valuable products of the country finding their way to the greater market of Shanghai. The settlement is, however, in favour with the Europeans as a place of residence, mainly on account of the proximity of the Chusan Islands and the lovely scenery met with in about a day's journey inland from Ningpo. Here are richly wooded islands, with fresh bracing air, which may be also enjoyed on the Tiendong Hills, thirty miles or more to the south-west, and to which the Europeans make many excursions. "These hills, where dark pine woods shade quaint monastic retreats, where crystal rivulets and foaming waterfalls abound, make : very brilliant show in spring-time when the azaleas are in bloom, for these plants grow in wild profusion all over the district, and mingle with the ferns and

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flowers common to more temperate latitudes. The tea plant also flourishes in this region, but it is only cultivated to meet the wants of the inhabitants. The bumboo, too, grows in great perfection, and spreads a pleasant shade over the houses with its graceful plumes."*

F'o-kien, though a mountainous province, is, as its name signifies, a "happy establishment." The soil in the valleys is rich, and the hills are covered with the tea shrubs, and when they permit of this mode of culture are laid out in terraces. In Fo-kien is raised the tea which by a mis-pronounciation of the Woo-e Mountains on which it grows is known to us as Bohen, and a great number of the other characteristic crops of China, while under the soil are found gold, silver, tin, lead, iron, and salt. Some of the scenery among the Nanling Mountains is said to be unsurpassed for weird grandeur. These mountains constitute the boundary between the provinees of Fo-kien and Kiang-si, and the road connecting them crosses by the Fung-shui Pass. Here Mr. Thomson describes the traek as becoming steep, narrow, and diffieult of ascent, but nevertheless great quantities of tea from the distriet of Hokow are annually carried along the elevated defile in baskets slung on the bamboo poles of coolies hired for this purpose. In the romantic recesses of the Woo-e Mountains are situated hundreds of Buddhist shrines, and the homes of countless hermits, living here singly or in monasteries and nunneries, the good repute of which is not universally taken for granted. Foochow is the capital, but Amoy (p. 36) is the principal port for trade and for foreign merchants, who for over three hundred years have trafficked here, though not always without opposition. The tourist who wanders among the Amoy Ilills and adjacent islands may still come upon gravestones of European traders and priests who were buried there over three centuries ago. The soil in the neighbourhood of Amoy is sterile, and incapable of yielding food enough for the large population, who, in addition to poverty, have to bear a crushing load of local taxation. Fo-kien, with its $23,000,000$ people, is the province whieh Europeans know best, and it may be taken for granted that most of the current ideas about China and the Chinese have been founded on the observations of residents in or about Amoy. Formosa (Vol. IV., pp. $295-300$ ) is a part of this province, and contributes to its prosperity, especially in the direction of the agricultural products, in which the coast-lying mainland is deficient.

The province of Hoo-pih-" north of the lakes"-is mostly a great plain, traversed by the Han River, which joins the Yang-tse-kiang at Hankow. Cotton, wheat, rape-seed, tobaceo, beans, and vegetable tallow are largely exported. Gold is also washed out of the sands of the Han River, but in quantities not more than sufficient to be barely remunerative. Every winter the supply is exbausted, but in the course of the annual flood more is brought down and deposited on what the Californian miner would call the "bars" of the river. Baron von Richthofen calculated that the washers did not make over 100 or 150 cash $\dagger$ per diem, so that there is no likelihood of a "rush" to the Han River diggings. Hoo-pil is the central provinee of China, and supports a population of over 29,000,000. Woo-chang stands on the south bank of the Yang-tse-kiang, opposite the city of Han-yang, which is, however, nowadays little more than a place of official residence, the densely

[^15]populated subburl of Hankow, with its foreign residences, having almost entirely monoplised the trade. Hankow is, take it all in all, $n$ very pleasant place to live in. It is well supplied with fooll, and the fine line of steamers between it and Shanghai render communication with the rest of the world easy. But it has this disadvantage, that the well-made roads in the foreign settlement are often submerged by the rising of the river at the end of the summer season. At such seasons the dwellings can only be approached by boats. "After the novelty of aquatic visits aud boating parties has worn off, when the hall stairs have been transformed into jetties, and the lower npartments and oflices into swimming baths, the residents, perehed for safety among their mouldy furniture on the upper floors, look down drearily enough upon the brown flood that threatens to sap the

foundations of their dwellings. It eannot be agreeable to have the poultry roosting in one bedroom and the children sleeping in the next, while a third is set apart for the aecommodation of the milch cow and the native domesties." The neighbouring Chinese eities are not so pleasant. They look pieturesque at a distance, but, as Mr. Thomson very justly remarks, a nearer inspection of the details reveals, as it often does in the East, the squalor and unkemptness of what looks afar off so charming. Then the mysterious effeet of atmosphere softened and beautified the quaint houses; now they dwindle down into paltry shanties, "propped up over muddy banks by a multitude of lame-looking poles and posts, and disfigured by the slimy deposit of the river. The green slopes of the hills are dotted with wretched, ruinous tenements, patehes of kitchen garden, and manure heaps, and their pigs are wallowing or fighting over reeking garbage; while, as for the children, they are as numerous as the vegetables in the garden plots, and as dirty as if they hal been manured for growth there. Tens of thousands of boats are moored close
water.
to the shores, eael oue with its family of emall traders, who aid the general uproar and diseord by raising their voiees in praise of their wares. Such are the impressions that are apt to fill the cye and the ear of the beholder as he gazes upon a river-side population aud its immediate surroundings."

Hoo-nan-"south of the lakes"-is a hilly province, the only level land being that which surrounds the Toong-ting Lake (p. 28), though this is in the summer covered by


VIEW OF PAIt OF SWATOW, IN TIE PROVINCE OF QUANG-TLNO.
water. It is, however, intersected by rivers, and tea and other products are produced in great abundance, while the whole province may be aptly described as one immense antlracitic and bituminous coal field. Iron and lead are amors its mineral deposits, and the timber rafts, dotted with huts, whieh the voyager upon the Yang-tse-kiang must be familiar with, are among the most noted wealth of the province. These rafts, indeed, are so thiekly studded with temporary dwellings as to look like floating villages. By-and-by, as the great cities are reached, they are broken up for sale. The owners, meantime, transfer their huts to the river bank, and there remain until their cargo is disposed of. Last of all, they sell their huts, and then start for the mountains
to cut down another supply of timber, and pilot it south in the munner they and their nucestors may have been doing for centuries perlaps.

Shen-se-not to be confounded with the neighbouring province of Shan-se (p. 3:3) -is lomuled on the north by the Grent Wall, mend before the Muhommednu rebellion, which laid so many cities and districts waste, was a prosperous region. Se-gan-foo, its eapital, was for nearly 2,000 years the metropolis of Chima; and the basin of the Wei River, which lies to the north of the runge of monntains which divides the provinee in two, is so situated as in some respects to constituto it the key of the Empire. For, shut off from the rest of China by the Yellow River on the east, and on the south by the range of mountain mentioned, this valley is on the highroad to Central Asia, and hence in the possession of an enemy communication with the 'lurkestan and other colonies in that direction would be entirely eut off. This accounts for the cagerness with which the provincelas, during all the revolutions of Chinn, been retained by the Government for the time being, and the energy with which invaders and rebels have tried to possess themselves of it. To this day its eapital city is well fortified, and contrary to the rule in China, the fortifieations-enclosing an area of six square miles-are kept in good repair, so that the Mahommedan rebels, though they invested it closely for two years, were unable to capture it. From it roads branch off in every direetion, and render Se-gan-foo an important entrenot of trade, though, like the province, which is purely an agricultural one, it produces. nothing whatever for the foreign market.

Kansu, in the north-west corner of Chimn proper, is cut off from Mongolia by the Great Wall, though the jurisdiction of its governor extends over the Desert of Gobi to the lorders of the Central Asiatic territory of Dsanguria. It is mountainous av ady in character, and with the exception of a large agricultural community settled to the of the Yellow River, its inhabitants are largely mixed with Mongols. The mountains, like those of Shan-se and Shen-se, abound in minerals-gold, silver, and copper, which, in the days to come, are destined to play a great part in the development of the oldest, yet newest, of the kingdoms of the world.

Se-chuen (also written Szc-chuen, or Szetchouan) is one of the largest provinees of China, and, what does not necessarily follow, it is also one of the richest. Its varicd surfuce-hills, mountains, valleys, and plains-yields an equally varied supply of products suitable for export, and its soil is bountifully supplicd with coal nend iron, as well as copper and sulphur to a smaller extent. In addition, it is one of the chief of the silkgrowing distriets of China, and exports an inferior quality of opium to other provinces, as well as white wax, which, in spite of the corrupt mandarins winking at the former traffic, is a more legitimate article of commerce. Tobaceo is also largely grown, and Se-chnen is the only provinee in which the custom of smoking eigars is indigenous. Salt is made from brine raised from wells, and in one district petroleum is struck when a depth of from 1,800 to 2,000 feet is reached. Sugar, tung oil, barley, wheat, Indian corn, beans, rice, potatoes, \&c., are among the other crops of this favoured region. Copper is smelted to the extent of 500 or 600 tons per annum, and sold at a price fixed by Government to certain concessionnaires, who, in their turn, pay a royalty to the Crown. The coal-mines may be seen all along the banks of the Yang-tse-kiang
which Hows-a tortuous highway for commerce-through the province; bat the method of working them is very defeetive.

Quang-luny, or "Cimiton," as the name has been Anglified, is one of the provinees of China which we know best, and the one which at one time wis our almost sole source of iuformation ubout the country. Its characteristies are well-wooded highlnuds and ulluviul lauds, especially towards the sea-board, neur the mouth of the learl River (p. 6i), which forms one of many inlets to the interior. The Quang-tung plain is indeed formed by the denudation of the highlands. This river bas brought down soil and shoaled up the sea, and thens gradually turned it into dry land. At the present day it is interseeted by a multitude of strenms and lagoons, so that, Mr. Thomson remarks, it is diffienlt to sa: which is the true mavigable channel. The delta lies so low that it cannot be deseried from seaward uutil vessels get close in shore; but it is exceedingly fertile, and is oceupied in every arailuhle foot for the careful eultivation of sugar, rice, tobacco, the mulberry tree, and kitelen vegetables. The eity of Fatshnn, near which Keppel destroyed the Chinese fleet during the "Opium War," is the Sheffield of China, but the blades producel are not very remarkable either for kecmness of edge, temper, or other qualities. Silk, tea, eassia twigs and buds, matting, fire-crackers, sugar, and palm-leaf funs-the last of which are sent to New York alone to the extent of from four to five millions per annum-form the principal articles of export. Coal abounds, but, as in the case of the irou manufactures, mone of it is sent out of the country. Off the const lie many islands, such as Hainan, which is about 100 miles long, and not much less in breadth, and is very mountainous, except in the north, where there is a plain of some extent. This ishand possesses gold and other riches, some of which reach the eities of Canton and Swatow (p. 37), the treaty ports of the province, though, sinee the opening of Kien-chow, on the northern coast of Hainan, some of the island trade has been diverted in that direction (pp. 26, 28).

Quang-si is a less important province, mountainons in the south and east, but level or hilly in the north, and is intersected by the Si-kiang and the Kwei-kiang, or Cimamon River. On the mountains large-sized timber is reared, lower down the all-important bamboos, and in the fertile valleys the usual food staples. On the hot humid marsh-lands of the south rice is raised, but the people suffer from the relaxing character of the climate.

Quei-chow is a smaller and even more thinly populated province-that is, speaking of the population from the Chinese stindpoint, which must always be comparative, for it bas really more inhabitants than all the A:atralian colonies put together, and about three tinies the number the United States possessed when they began the world for themselves -in other words, it has about $6,000,000$. It is, with the exception of the plains in the central and northern regions, mountainous, and has been for long in a chronie state of disturbance, owing to the manner in which the aboriginal tribes of Meaou-tze, who are the original owners of the soil, have been maltreated by the Chinese officials. The Yun-nan rebellion also reached some of the south-western districts, and, in addition, the unhealthiness of the climate has almost ruined the trade of this part of the empire. Its agriculture is limited, but its mines of copper, silver, and lead are valuabie, and its quicksilver can compete in quality and quantity with that of any part of the world. Realgar, orpiment, and coal are also shipped, and silk forms a regular article of commerce.

Yen-nan is a large but thinly-peopled province, consisting of plains, with valleys, and in the north it is broken up by mountains, and everywhere intersected by large rivers and lakes. The province lies alorg the frontiers of Tibet and Burmah, and aecordingly it has been proposed to open up a trade route letween India and China by way of the Brahmapootra and Yang-tse-kinng, the space between the two rivers to be connected by a road : 50 miles long. But up to date this great work has not been achieved, although for ages there have existed important trade rontes between China and the neighbouring countries passing through this province,* and along which considerable commerce passes. Gold, tin, silver, lead, zinc, conper, precious stones, \&.e., are all found; and in common with silk, musk, gum, and ivory, form articles of export, while the tea of southern Yum-nan is appreciated throurghout the empire. The opium is, however, of very poor guality. Altogether, though the country is rich, it is little developed, and, owing to the recently erushed Panthay or Mohammedan rebellion, is mut likely for a time to recover even the limited prosperity which it formerly enjoyed.

Siiing-fiing-not always included among the Chinese provinces, as it is properly the government of Southern Mantchuria-though mostly mountainous, with many plains, is extremely fertile, but in the vicinity of the sea covered with a saline exndation which renders all efforts at culture hopeless. In the summer the country suffers great heat, in the winter extreme cold; but the climate is healthy, and to an Englishman homelike, the English trees and shrubs growing well, and the general facies and seenery being rather European than Asiatic, or, in other words, like the Amoor country which adjoins it. Mr. Will:amson deseribes the plains as monotonons, but pleasant, owing to the numerous villages emhosomed in foliage, and surrounded by well-cultivated fields, in which is heard the catack of the plonghman's whip, or the joyous song earolled forth by peasauts on whom the deerees of Pelsin sit but lightly. The hill country is, howe er, extremely picturesque. "Ever-changing views, torrents, and fountains, varied and abounding vegetati , flocks of black cattle grazing on the hill-sides, goats perched on the overhan ;ing crags, horses, asses, and sheep, on the less elevated regions, numerous well-built hamlets everywhere, enliven the seene; while a clear blue canopy overspreading all, and fine bracing air, make the country delightful to the triveller." Wheat, barley, millet, oats, maize, eotton, indigo, and tobacio are its crops; hut coal, iron, and gold, though little worked, exist. It is so rapidly being sethu, and in many respects is so like the rest of China, that we have preferred to treat it here rather under the head of the outlying parts of the Empire.

It thus appears that there is really little of anything in Europe whieh China needs or camnot produce. Its coal and iron are inexhaustible, but the former is worked but slightly, lest-is the professors of Fenershui or "geomancy" declare-the "plain of the earth" should eapsize by the balance being destroy ed when the loads of fuel are extracted, while the ores are, perkaps on that account, but little smelted, and in most places only by wood. No land has a more magnificent soil, or one in which art does more for nature, The great "loess" plain, extending over an area of 250,000 square miles, comprises

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much of the province of Pe-chili, all of that of Shan-se, the northern part of Shen-se, Kan-su, and northern Ho-nan. It consists of a solid but friable earth of a brownish-yellow colour, which overlays the subsoil to the depth often of 1,000 feet. Professor Douglas describes it as having a "tendency to vertical clearage, aud wherever a river cuts into it, the loess encloses it between perpendicular cliffs 500 feet in height. These, when washed by the water, are speedily undermined, and the loess breaks off in vertical sheets, which fall into the river, and are carried down ly the stream." In this way the great plain has been formed (p.26), and through the means described the Gulf of Pe-chili and the Yellow Sea are shoaling up. To the Chinese this earth is of the utmost value, for wherever found-in the lowlands or on the hills at an elevation of 7,000 or 8,000 feet-it is available for the purposes of agriculture, and yields abundantly without the application of manure, and with a minimum expenditure of labour on the part of the tiller. It not only supplies the happy people whose soil it overlays with food for use and export, but in the cliffs which it forms on the banks of the rivers are dug mumerous caves, used as dwellings by the great majority of them. Indeed, so important is it, that some ingenious philologists consider that one of the Enperor's numeruus titles-"Whang-te," i.e., "Yellow Emperor," or "Ruler of the Yellow"-is derived from the fact that he is lord of the loess, or "yellow earth" (whang-too). It is probably the residuum which fell to the bottom of a lake in days when the country it now overspreads was submerged.

## CHAPTER III.

## Cilva: Peopie; Rulers; Títide.

In a country so rich, the first requisite ior its development is to have it peopled by a race capable of taking alvantage of the opportmities at their land. This China only partially is. In the first place it is densely populated by a nation ehiefly agricultural or dependent on agriculture, and the want of manufactories prevents the surplus population of the cities and rural districts from being absorbed. Hence China is, under the present circumstances, densely stocked, though, were its mineral and other resources properly developed, it would not have more than enough of labourers, and these would rank among. the most comfortable of toilers. The exact number of people in the Empire we do not know ; it can only be roughly calculated, and the estimates vary from 425, 213, and 152 millions to not one quarter of that number. The usual statement accepted in Europe is that China proper-excluding Mantchuria, Mongolia, Tibet, Corea, Dsangaria, and Turkestan -contains nearly $405,000,000$ souls;* but a Chinese statistician, $\dagger$ who during the past year has calculated the number of his countrymen, considers that if they are put at from

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pled by a hina ouly ullural or population the present properly nk among we do not , and 152 Europe is Turkestan past year $t$ at from
$100,000,000$ to $120,000,000$, they will not be done injustice to. But Mr. Hippesley, of Shanghai, in another calculation male in November, 1876, considers that the population of China proper is about $250,000,000$. The truth will most likely be found between the two latter estimates. A census which was made towards the close of the sixteenth eentury gave $307,467,000$ as the number of Kien-lung Wong's subjeets, but in 1743 Grosier considered that they did not exceed $200,000,000$; and though various enumerations taken since that date give the population at a much higher figure, it is very doubtful whether some of the returns are not apocryphal, constructed to gratify the vanity of the Kinsman of the Sun and Moon, albeit, if in error to the stent imputed, they would rather rudely interfere with the financial estimates of his ministers. But the latest statist is of opinion that the Empire has leen decreasing in population sinee 1761, and doubtless during the Taiping rebellion between 1847 and 1862 the destruction of numerous cities, towns, and villages, and the massacre of their inhabitants, must have materially reduced the density of the inhabitants of the Empire. The population of Pekin is estimated at from 500,000 to $1,050,000$, which shows how loose are the data we have to go on. Canton has, it is reported on the same vague authority, one million and a half of people; Tien-tsin, nearly a million ; Hangchow, 600,000 ; Shanghai, 278,000 ; and the number of other cities with a population over 100,000 is considerable. A census of the foreign residents, taken in 1879, gives the following particulars:-


Thus the firms engaged in commeree are 351, and the tutal foreign population of the empire 3,814 , while the population of the nineteen treaty ports, including those of Formosa, is estimated at $4,990,000$.

## Tie Nation.

But even at the lowest figures given China is a thickly-peopled region, though to nothing like the extent of the valley of the Ganges, and the swarms of its peeple who are hiviug off into other countries-tossing to the winds the traditions of centuries-ought, under other conditions, to find at home the employment which they now seek abroad. Of the character of the people at large it is somewhat diffienlt for a foreigner to speal They must not be judged according to the Oll World eanons of morality, nor above all, meted in the European measure. As Archdeaeon Gray justly remarks, their morals are written in strange characters more difficult for one not of their race to decipher than their own singularly compound word syllables. "In the same individual virtues and vices, apparently incompatible, are placed side by side. Meekness, gentleness, docility, industry, contentment, cheerfuluess, obedience to superiors, dutifulness to parents and
reverence for the aged are, in one and the same person, the companions of insincerity, lying, flattery, treachery, cruelty, jealousy, ingratitude, avarice, and distrust of others." But deceit and fraud are with them, as with all timid races, the natural defence of the weak, while, as the English courts of law abundantly demonstrate, the other inconsistencies of their eharacter are not peculiar to them. The despotism of their Government, the gross supersticion of their reiigion, the abominable cruelty of their judicial code, and their


HATA-MENE-TA-K1E NTHEET, JEKIN.
general ignorance, in spite of the fact that as a rule they are more lettered than were until recently any people in Europe, combined with the degraded social life which polygamy always entails, are serious disadvantages for any race to contend against. But still, those well acquainted with them pronounce the Chinese, as a rule, "courteons, orderly, industrious, peace-loving, sober, and patriotic." Mr. Seward, the American Minister at Pekin, wrote eight years ago in much the same strain, and as his opinion is, perhaps, in some respects better worth quoting than that of a European, I think it worth givirg in full. "The prevailing tendeney," writes this experienced publicist, "among foreigners in China is to debase the Chinese to a very low place in the seale of nations, to belittle their
intellectual capacity, to condemn their morals, to deelare them destitute of vitality and energy. Jach person who argues the case finds facts ready for his use which seem to him to demonstrate his own view. I confess that the case is different with me. Faith in the race is a matter of intuition with me. I find here a steady adherence to the traditions of the past, a sober devotion to the calls arising in the various relations of life, an absence of shiftlessness, an honest and at least somewhat earnest grappling with the neeessities and difficulties which beset them in the humbler stages of progress, a eapacity to moralise withal, and an enduring sense of right and wrong. These all form what must be considered an essentially satisfactory basis and groundwork of national character. Among the people there is practical sense, among the gentry selolarly instincts, the desire of advaneement, the disposition to work for it with earnestness and constancy, amongst the rulers a sense of diguity, breadth of view, considering their information, and patriotic feeling. Who will say that such a people have not a future more wonderful even than their past? Why may not the wheels of progress and empire roll on until the countries of Asia witness again their course?" The present writer sees no reason, except that worn out nations rarely revive. But it may be said that the Chincse have never gone back. Their civilisation is old, very old; but already there are signs that the new wine which is pouring into the empire is bursting the old bottles, and that though China has not been in such haste to elothe itself in Western garments as Japan, it will in the end, though not running so fast, make quite as much progr.ss, and, as its wealth is infinitely greater, win in the race for the prizes of the new civilisation. Nor is their docility so great as has been usually represented. The many rebellions, often fieree and prolonged, one of which drove the Emperor off his throne, prove that the Chinaman, though easily ruled when properly treated, can be a fierce zealot and even a courageous asserter of his rights when the slumbering Asiatic tigerishness of his nature is roused. It is also akin to the bigotry of which we accuse the Chinese to style them unprogressive, exclusive, and dead to the advantages of European inventions. They do not wish for railways. How long is it since all England was enamoured of these, since seores of squires of all degrees rushed to the capital to protest against the iron horse coming near them, aud from the pulpit and the press these inventions were denounced as ruinous to Englishmen, English horses, and English sehoolboys' morals? Vaceination is still denounced, as were inoculation and vaecination long after they were introduced; and tramways were until lately-perhaps they are still-vilified as inventions of the Amicricans or of the evil one, the power of darkness and our transatlantic cousins being, in the eyes of the British Chinaman, very nearly akin. Oceasionally a European is mobbed in the villages of the remoter parts of the Empire. This is no doubt exceedingly rude on the part of a people who never sav a Briton, and never heard much good of them in their dealings with the Celestial Empire; but only a few months ago the members of the Chinese Embassy were mobbed in one of the most fashionable streets of London, aid at this day a strangely-dressed foreigner would fare but badly in some of the more outlandish parts of the Black Country, or elsewhere. The soldier in Goldsmith's story hated the French because "they ate frogs and wore wooden shoes," and would doubtless have put his sentiments in regarl to our amiable neighbours into force bad he caught one of them in a region less remote perhaps than those
parts of China where the "foreign devil" meets with rongh nasage. Even the Irish or Scoteh heve not yet escaped the prejudice of the vulgar English, and the inhospitable half briek is yet in some parts of the country the legitimate weapon for the insular Chauvanist to apply to the stranger's head. The man with the evil eye is in Italy a worse terror to the peasant than the wonder-working foreigner to the ignorant Kan-su herdsman. A woman accused of witehcraft was only lately burnt to death by some Russian peasants, and the authorities of chin rank so lar approved of the act as to award her murderers the most nominal punishment known to the law, and to acquit others. Connectient Puritans, and among other English juJges the learned Sir Matthew Hale, not very long ago were of the same opinion. Even yet in many districts of Great Britain a person supposed to be endowed with such occult powers would fare well if he or she did not make the aequaintance of one of those capaeious horse-pouds with which rural England is so plenteously studded. The truth is, that those who superciliously criticise the Chinese display, by the very words they use, the selfsame prejudices they despise in the Mongols. For instance, Mr. Wingrove Cook* is shocked that the Chinese rose has no fragrance, that the women have no petticoats, the labourer no Sabbath, and the magistrate no sense of honour. He thinks it something absurd for a man when puzzled to scratch the antipodes of the head, to consider the seat of intellect in the stomach, or the place of honour on the left hand; that he wears white garments when in mourning, and considers that to bare the head is insolence instead of respect. And why not? The left is nearest to the sun-producing east, and is therefore as honourable as our west. The brain is just as unlikely to be stimulated by irritating the scalp as any other part of the body, while it is not more absurd to consider the intellect in the stomach than to imagine, as do balf mankind and all the poets, that loves and hates are in the hollow musele called the heart. But the people are not stationary. The Chinese army is a formidable foree compared with what it was twenty years ago, and foreigners are taken into their service whenever the Government finds that any gain is to be reaped by doing so. Arsenals are springing up everywhere, ships are being built on the most approved models, and arms-unfortunatelyforged to a wonderful extent and perfection. Their embassies have gone to Lurope, and those of Furope to them. They are amenable to reason, have no caste, and, unlike the other peoples of the East, are singularly free from religions prejudice. As Mr. Williamson points out, history shows that they have adopted every manifest improvement which has presented itself for many centuries. At the time when Caractacus and his blue-painted warriors were meeting Cæsar on the Kentish shore, the Chinese had adopted the Buddhist system of deeimal notation, and had changed their custom of writing figures from top to bottom for the Indian plan of inseribing them from left to right. Every dynasty up to the present time has improved the calendar by the light derived from foreign astronomers, and in open competitions Father Schall, of the Jesuit mission, was appointed by the first Tartar Emperor President of the Board of Astronomy at Pekin. When the Emperor Kangh-i began to print his encyclopædia in 300 volumes he adopted movable copper types, and to this day movable types of wood are employed in printing the Perin Giazelle. The cotton-plant, the potato, the maize, tobaceo, and opium, have all been naturalised by

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them, while every year dozens of foreign books on seience and medieine are translated into Chinese. The Buddhist religion-not to mention scores of other innovations cagerly welcomel by them-is a foreign faith, while the Taiping rebellion whiel shook the Limpire, and at one time promised to regenerate it, originated in the perusal of a foreign tract, and was fed from the doetrines of the Old Testament Scriptures. The Chinese mind, though their system of grovernment is doubtless sluggish, is not shut to new impressions, and the fact that the people take to them slowly is perhaps no cause for regret, for they will be all the better able to assimilate what they learn. Already, unhappily, they have learned enough, to prefer other nations' goods to ours. A raee adroit in all the tricks of commercial knavery is not likely soon to be deceived by eotton plastered with dirt and size. For their own very ancient proverb declares that "the conjuror does not deceive the man who beats the gong!"

## The Rulens.

It is really from the governing class that the obstacles to Chinese progress come. Mr. Robert Mart, so long the Chinese Inspeetor-General of Customs, and one of the most powerful men in China, is very desponding over these factors in the history of the Middle Kingdom. Only an infinitesimally small pereentage of the offieials have a glimmeriug of what is meant by progress, and a still smaller number are prepared to boldly enter upon the path of reform, or even to take the consequences of an initiative. Indeed, of late years, the example of Japan is often held up as a warning to over-enthusiastie reformers. The Chinese system of competitive examinations, as the tests for every offiee, is not the best to secure enlightened officials; but of late years even this has been divergel from, the neediness of the Government having induced them in some cases to dispose of offiees to the highest bidder, and to encourage the basest intrigues for place and the pelf for the sake of which place is desired. This lamentable result is tersely deseribed in a report from the British Consıl at Chefoo, in the province of Shan-tung:-"Large tracts of land," he remarks, "which might be covered with vines (to whieh cultivation the climate is peeuliarly favourable), as the hills by the Rhine and Moselle, proluce nothing but stunted weeds. Rivers which, by a little deepening, might be made highways of commerce and centres of irrigation, wind their way through shallow sands and undrained marshes, earrying their wealth of water to the sea. Noble lakes, which by a little trouble could be made into valuable reservoirs, periodieally overflow their banks, and devastate the fields they should fertilise, and choke up the water highways they should keep full and clear. Natural routes, winding through hills of gentle gradients, and of just snffieient altitude to afford good drainage, only requiring a few shovelfuls of the stone that abounds in the neighbourhood to make them into excellent roads, are by neglect utterly impassable at all times by wheeled eonveyances, and after a small shower of suow, even by pack mules. A little surreptitious washing of a few streams is all the advantage taken of the rich store of gold in the province; the silver mines have been elosed, and the same neglect and obstruction are evinced with regard to the less precious but equally valuable metals, such as tin, lead, iron, and copper. Coal exists all over the province, and
at points whence it could be tramsported with ease to centres of industry, and to ports in which are anchored many steamers of Chinese and foreign nationality, In a country where thousands starve ammally from the cold, where every weed and stick are valuable for fuel, the best of fuel lies on the gromad with no one to piek it up, while coal imported from Australia and Japan not only feeds the steamers, but also the furnaces of the mative blacksmiths and irommongers. The fine marble, the granite, the splendid sandstone to be seen stretching hundreds of feet without a Haw, which might ereet magnifieent palaces, are only carved into a few tombstones, or pieked out to build cottages and pirgsties. An


A THADESMAN OF TIEN-TSIN, THE THEATY PORT OF THE PItOVINCE OY IE-CHILI,
industrious and stalwart population, pre-eminently sober and law-abiding, incapable, it is true, of the larger commereial undertakings, such as railways and steamboat companies. without also the high intelligence of our artisans, yet peenliarly apt at the smaller branches of trade, and with a fair skill in the ruder arts, are kept in bondage by ignorance, unrelieved by religious feelings and aspirations, and, under the yoke of bad laws and worse administration, have their intelligenee stunted and individuality destroyed; condemned to a state of hand-to-mouth poverty, they enjoy at the best of times but a vegetable prosperity, and on the failure of a single harvest perish by thousands of starration."

Add to this, that thousands are leaving the country to settle in the Malay Islands, Australia, and Ameriet, and the condition at whieh China has arrived can be imagiued. In
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spite of the prejudice and eren opposition to him, it is all but certain that before long the industrions Chinaman will become the principal labouring element, not only in Amerien, but in limope. 'The luropean is aristocratie, generally disliking manal toil, and aspires, wherever he can, to anything rather than the obseure life of the "working man." In a few years, as wild hands are being settled up, Europe, and even America, will find itself face to face with the problem of how best it ean find hands for handieraft. Then, when the time has arrived, will appear the Chinaman as the deres ex


CHINESE ARTILLERYMEN.
wachina who is to solve the problem. In fifty years steamers will transport, at fabulously bw prices, the teeming Mongols to all parts of the world, and then in European cities will arise Chinese quarters, inhabited by a race who have fixed themselves amongst us as surely as have the Jews; and who at first will create as much discontent and prejudice in their eapacity of toilers as have the other Orientals in their chosen role of kean traders in money, and in the most money-making merchandise. Undoubtedly we shall see Chinese workmen in Europe sooner than we imagine, or than the directors of labour organisations care to conceive.* The Government is essentially patriarchal. The

* On this question, see a thoughtful article in Anmates de l'Extrime Orient, November, 1879.

Einperor is the father of his people, and is supposed to rule his subjects as a pareut rules his children; but though the people are bound to obey the ruker in everything, at the same time their philosophers, from Confueius to Mencius, taught the sacred duty of rebellion, and of even executing the Emperor, when he diverged from the path of reetitude and oppressed the nution. These doctrines the numerons rebellions of China prove to have been attended to. The Emperor is otherwise viewed almost as a divine person-the intermediary between heaven and earth-and to the common people he is a personago so awful, that unless they pieture him sitting astride the saered dragon, he conveys to them no resemblance to anything tangible. He is the "son of Heaven," the representative of God upon earth; the source of law, offiee, power, honour, and emolument, and the owner of the soil, the resources and wealth of the whole country. He is the controller of "Tien-hia"-all under heaven, or "within the four seas;" he is the "lord of ten thousand years," the "imperial sublime," the "Kwa jen"-the " man who stands by himself"-or "Kwa kuin," the "solitary prince," who represents, or did represent, the embassies which came to him merely as the messengers of " nin-i" and "wai-i," the internal and external barbarians coming to do homage to their liege lord. So ignorant are the people of any other nations that they suppose the English only to be a tribe somewhere on the outside of the empire, and therefore that they all know each other. It must not, however, be supposed that the term "foreign devil," commonly applied to the Europeans and Americans, is intended to be contemptuons. Rather it expresses the wondering awe and mystery with which we are regarded, as is evinced by the fact that a distinguished foreiguer is commonly addressed by the title of "His Excelleney the Devil." Yet they hardly consider us muels superior to fools; and their country is to them the "middle kingdom," whieh occupies four-fiftlis of the earth, the rest of the world being merely a fringe to it. "Not one Chinaman in ten thousand," writes Mr. Hart, "knows anything about the foreigner; not ore Chinaman in a hundred thousand knows anything about foreign inventions and discoveries; and not one in a million aeknowledges any superiority in either the condition or the appliances of the West; and of the ten or twenty men in China who really think Western appliances valuable, not one is prepared to boldly advocate their free introduction." This opinion was given ten years ago, but it is still almost as strietly true as when pronounced.

The present Emperor, Kuangsu, was born in 1871, and is the ninth Emperor of the Tartar dynasty of Tsing, which in the year 1644 succeeded the native dynasty of Ming. The two great departments of state are the "Neko," or Privy Council, and the "Chun-chi-chu," or Secretariat of State. The Privy Council consists of three members of Mantehu origin and three Chinese.* The four chief members of the "Neko" are known as aetual members, the other two are ouly assistants. The duties of the Comneil ure to generally regulate the laws and administrative affairs of the empire, and to comsel the Emperor on the high duties of his station; but of late years it has lost much of its old importance, most of the power having now fallen into the hands of the Secretariat of State, which is composed of the princes of the Imperial honse, the members of the different departments of the Privy Conncil, and of the other alministrators in the capital.

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It eoncerns itself mainly with the revision of the Imperial ediets and decisions, und the control of the different civil und military departments. Under the Sceretariat are the six ministrics or boards, each presided over by two gresidents mad four vice-presidents, partly Chinese and purtly Muntchus, though the composition of the control varies. These ministrics are the Boards of War, l'unishments, of Ollices, Ceremonies, Revenues, and Works. In addition, there are the ndministrations for subject comutries, and those of musie, of the consers, and of the military eommand of lekin. The censors are inferior but old officers, aul are privileged to report any irregularity in the Government departments, and even to uriticise the eonduct of the limperor himself. Of late this, like most other departments of the Chinese Government, lus fallen into corrupt ways, though now and then some uffender in high plaees is brought to condign punishment through the aetion of a more than ordinarily aetive and honest eensor. In fact, the " Thon-cin'a-iuan," or censors' department, may be considered a kind of court of appeal. In addition, there are departments elarged with the Imperial menuaye, nad, above all, with reporting on the different members of the lmperial household, their aljilities, marriages, and general behaviour, so that the 1imperor may be guided by these notes in the seleetion of a suceessor, or in the diguities which he shall give to or take away from them. The Han-lin-iuan, generally known as the "Academy of Pekin," or Haulin College, is mother institution of Goverument, for from it are usually seleeted the ministers, while the important department of Foreign Affairs (or Tsonngli-Yamen) has sprung into existenee sinee China has had intereourse with strangers. The provineial governments are almost autonomous, and theoretically are very perfeet; lut in reality they are corrupt to the core, the low salaries which the maudarins and other ulficials get being utterly incapable of paying their expenses without their resorting to the luribes and "squeezes" which are looked upon by every Chinese servant, public or private, as the perquisites of offiee, and, indeed, to which the people themselves have got so accustomed that they will hardly believe in any other system.

The Chinese revenue is only known by estimates, but aeeording to the best sources of information it averages $79,500,000$ taëls,* or abont $£ 23,400,000$. Up to the year 1874, China had no national debt, and even now its sole burdens from foreign loan are $\mathfrak{£ 6 2 7 , 6 7 5}$, learing interest at 8 per cent., and secured on the revenue; and though doubtless there is a considerable amount of floating internal debt, yet nothing like the sum which thero is in Japan.

The army is composed of twenty-four "banners" of the imperial guard and of the provincial army, the latter bei.g composed of Chinese alone, while the others are limited mostly to Mantehu Tartars, to whieh race the present dynasty belongs. In all there may be about 800,000 Chinese and 271,000 Mantehus, and not over 270,000 of this paper army is organised on the European model. The navy consisted in 1876 of thirty-eight ships of incousiderable size, but to this fleet there have been lately added several powerful gun-boats, which in any war with a coast-lying nation are capable of inflicting great damage. $\dagger$

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## Thade.

The greatest portion of the trade of China is carried on between the different provinees (pp. 31-40), but there is also a considerable foreign commerce, though nothing like there might be under more enlightened rulers. For instance, in 1877, the last year for which we have full returns, the imports were valued at $73,253,170$ teiels, and the exports at $(67,45,02 \mathrm{a}$ taëls, of which the great proportion went to Great Britain, either direct, or to our colony of llong Kong, which in time will le an entrenot for British goods, to be seattered thence throughout the length and breadth of China. The East Indies also took mold sent a very eonsiderable fuantity of goods, but the commeree with all other comutries,


CAMELS OF THE NOMTII OF CHINA.
including Russia, viat Kiakhta, in Siberia (p. 13), was comparatively small. Indeed, it may be said that over three-fourths of the foreign trade of China are with Britain and her dependencies, the vast proportion of this traffic going on through the port of Shanghai, and consisting, on the one hand, of importations of opium, cotton, woollen fabries, and metals, and on the other hand of the export of teas, silks, and sugar, in addition to miscellaneous artieles. It may be added that more than one-half of this merchandise is carried in British ships, and a little more than one-fifth in those of the United States. In China milways have yet to be built. An experimental line was opened between Shanghai and Wouscug in 1876, but next year the Government ordered it to be torn up. The posts are carried through the empire either on foot or by carriers with relays of horses. Telegraphs are beginning to be tolerated, but as yet there are only a few short and mimportant lines, merely for the use of the Government, who, however, still prefer to use the 20,000 imperial roads which the Chinese boast as permeating the empire, though,
as lass alr line of rat (H) neteon
as has already leen pointed out, they maintain them in a wretched state. The experimental line of midway haid down was torn up, not because the Govermment considered it aseless or (in ancount of the people declining to putronise it, but simply because the prople patronised

So the Mandarins tore up the rails of the Shanghai and Wousong railway, and forced the people, who during its brief eareer erowded the carriages, to travel between the two towns as their fathers had done from times beyond which the mythical records of China runneth not.

One Chinese trading town is so very much like another, that the graphie deseription which Mr. Thomson gives of one will apply to almost all of them. The first impression which one of these cities gives when looked down upon is that of an immense mass of roofs, the intervals between the rows of the houses being so marrow, and the projecting eaves so broad, that a bird's-eye view fails to reveal the presence of strects at all. A closer inspection shows that these are exceedingly narrow, but erookel, and that the houses are liuddled so elosely together that fresh air can only bo got-and then merely from a comparative point of view-by climbing to the roof. This is accordingly in most Chinese houses a common place of remion, decked with fle vers and furnished with seats. Here also alongr the sides of the flat space are arranged great jars of water, to aid in extinguishing fire, for even did fire-engines exist, the tortuous ways would not permit of their being brought to bear upon the flames. In order also to further prevent conflagrations spreading among the densely huddled-up masses of flinssy Chinese louses, here and there strong dividing fire-walls are built, thus separating the buildings into blocks. If a determined fire breaks out, the cardboard-like buildings within the limits of the fire-walls usually go, but the chances are it will stop there. Yet the Chinese crowd together for sociality rather than from necessity, for often in the middle of the densely-packed citie:; there are large open spaces which might be devoted to buildings instead of to agrienltural purposes. But though many Chinese eities are surrounded by strong walls, piereed by triple gates, yet in the strects outside the ramparts the buildings display the same arrangement as in the more crowded spaces within, the fact being that the frugal Chinaman considers house-rent the smallest part of his expenses, and is very careless about the blessings of fresh air and breathing space. It is indeed wonderful to see the space into which a Chinese family will cram itself. The monotonous mass of roofs would give most, Chinese towns a most prosaic appearanee when seen from above, were it not for the break in the level supplied by pagodas, yameus, or official residences, temples, guild-holises, and in the southern provinces the square towers of the pawnbrokers' estabdishments towering above the others. Some of the Chinese brirges (Plate XLI.) are masterpieces of arehitecture, and many of them, as was formerly the case in burope, are lined on either side with shops and private houses, so that only a narrow path is left open for passengers. The streets themselves are particularly unsavoury. Bad drainage blends its typhoid odour with those of chatcoal, garlie, oil, opium, and tobaceo; while the lower elasses are, contrary to the rule of the rural Chinese, in most instances sadly in need of a bath. The shopkeepers, however, look rosy, contented, and prosperous, and many of then live to a goon old age, and rather pity their confrires in the broal streets of Pekin (p. 44) and Nankin, in so far that they suffer more from the hot summers than do the tradesnen, ensconsed behind their counters in these shady alleys, into whieh the rays of the sun so rarely reach. There are, of course, as in Europe and America, more private streets, inhabited by rieh merchants, who, however, usually live above their shops, aud in the suburbs the villas of "retired people." But though a Chinaman, after his own
fashion ideas the est: of the poets, 1 coincide walks t out fror wives, Kingdor typical from $a b$ with mo in little and gory may bas and ther the wors rich and which ha to love want?" human al Inestional the deseri to-day. where a wealthy C of his nei be among townerds tl may be a owing to ment with authority $t$ to the ma aecorlingly of the ville or who hav haired it m of the Chin the local sel explain, to t
fashion, loves to be comfortable, he does not care for ostentation, and a visitor whose idens have leen monlded on the habits of the newer world would never suspect that the establishment he has entered was owned by a man who would even in the rich cities of the Western Hemisphere be thought wealthy. China is the "Flowery Land" of its poets, but the stranger who has not the enticée to a Sinetic paradise would scarcely coincide in the justice of this eulogistic phrase. All lee sees from the outside as he walks through the suburbs is a high wall, which is in its way as much intended to shut out from prying eyes the preserve in which the rich Chinaman has ensconsed himself, his wives, and daughters, as the high wall or palisades were to keep out of the Middle Kingdom the Tartar barbarians who now rule it. Climb a hill overlookiug one of the typieal Chinese towns, and the curious traveller may have an opportunity of seeing from above what he fails to observe from below. "There is a tiny landscape garden, with model bridges and model mountains, wherein dwell the blessed genii; living fish in little pools, just as in the ocean and rivers; rocks and chasms like the weird peaks, and gorges of Woc-e Hills; shady nooks beneath bending bamboos, where liue ladies may bask in the smile of their lord when he is in the mood for their attentions. Here and there miniature pagodas and temples oceur, or sometimes a real shrine, dediated to the worship of the ancestors of the family. Food in abundance from unknown sourees, rieh and costly raiment to put on, paint to bring back the hues of health to the check which has shrivelled and faded even in this earthly paradise; above all, a living Chinaman to love and worship (or to hate, as the humour suits them)-what more ean women waut:" This, Mr. Thomson remarks, is to the Chinaman's mind "the perfection of human abode, the result of four thousand years' civilisation." In all that period it is questionabie whether Chinese life-and, above all, Chinese rural life-has changed, for the deseriptions of the oldest writers would apply equally well to the village routine of to-diy. Indeed, rural life in China is very pleasant as things go in that part of Cathay, where a eycle of years is as a decade in Europe. The people are less exelusive, and the wealthy Chinaman does not think of barring out ly walls his household gools from the glare of his neighbonrs, when he is all but certain that the "foreign devil" is not likely to be among them. In the cities the paternal eare of the rulers, even when well disposed townerds the people, cannot always reaeh the poorest of the governed. The mandarin maly be a just man, who has not knowingly oppressed a single individual, but yet, owing to tho rapine and villainy of his subordinates, he may leave his seat of government with the curses of the robbed people following him. But in a village, often the only authority the people know is the patriareh or headman of the "tribe," who is responsible to the mandarin for his conduet, and for the content of the people whose happiness aeeorlingly, for his own interest, if for $r$, higher motive, he strives to secure. The magnates of the village are some wiseacres possessel of greater knowledge than their neighbours, or who have the art of making them believe they are endowed with it, the man, whitehairel it may be, who has passed some examination in the great competitive tournaments of the Chinese literati, or, in default of the village being honoured with sueh a prodigy, the loeal seloolmaster. The pedadogue may not perhaps possess any degree, but he ean always explain, to the perfeet satisfaction of his neighbours, that it was solely through the jealousy of
the Inamin College and the literati, who dreaded his presence anong them, that long ago he had not been ealled to the comecils of the Emperor at Pekin. The seboolmaster might, perhaps, if be eared, tell his neighlours who are the rulers of the land, but as the information would not make the riee grow better, oi the pigs farrow more abmulantly, village China is not very particularly interested in listening to such recondite bits of polities. It is eroogh for them that th San is their beadman: and happy are the rusties who are not compelled to know more. This village life is really the best part of China, and the seeret of how for four thousand years-perhaps longer-the nation has proved true to its old conditions, and remained, take it all in all, peaceable and contented, if not happy and prosperous. There are, as might be expected, oceasional feuds in the village. The elders, or old men, are apt to presume on their time-honoured privileges, one of the ehief of whieh is to oeeupy the best seats at any feast, no matter whether they are invited or not, and to exaet what is, indeed, never uispated, the deferenee due to their threeseore and ten years. The matrons wrangle and the gossips are busy, but jealousy, heart-burning, and the ambition to do mueh more than live by daily toil, is not markedly seen in rural China. In one or two of the southern provinees, or in parts of those provinces, village feuds were formerly very common. Two villages went to war with eaeh other, the combatants being in reality hired bandits or bravoes, who robbed the side they were paid to oppose, carried off their women, and eaptured the men, in order to torture and maltreat them.
'These rondettas would often go on until the parties engaged were utterly exhausted and the Imperial Government found it impossible to collect the taxes. Then, and not until then, it interfered, though the villagers, indeed, dreaded the exactions of the Pekin soldiers much more than they did the robbery of the banditti, and aceordingly, at the first news of their advantage, flew to the mountains with what goods they conld carry. In the end the robber chiefs were sublued, not ly foree of arms, but by bribes of money and titles bestowed by the eentral authorities, mutil in due time they found it eonvenient to transfer their serviees to auother part of the country. Such disorderly seenes were, however, solely local, and oceurred in those parts of the country which were far removed from the eapital, imperial or proviscial, and had been disorganised by rebellions or similar disturbances. The provinee of Quan-tung was long notorious for such raids, and is yet, espeeially in the vicinity of the mountain passes. 'The better kind of farm-houses and the residences of the gentry (pp. 41,57) are bnilt in the form of a rectangle, the walls of whieh, made of earth, lime, and sand, are often piereed with loopholes for musketry, and proteeted at each of the fonr corners with a turret or bastion, from whieh the defenders ean sweep the entire sides and ends of the enelosure. Inside are placed the dwelling-house of the owner and the other buildings belonging to the farm. The villages in the quieter parts of the country are generally embowered in hanyan or other trees, and over the entrance gate to the village aneestral hall is often placed a notice warning all whom it coneerns not to injure the trees or shoot the birds roosting in them, as they "exercise a good geomantic iufluence over the village and the adjaeent riee plains." It may be added, for the encouragement of future travellers who wish to see the interior of China, that Mr. MeCarthy, who two years ago journeyed from Chin-kiang to Bhamo, found everywhere
go he night, nation China It is 10 are ad the rue to happy The of the ey are o their ralonsy, is not parts of rent to s, who ed the hausted and not © Pekin the first y. In hey and nient to s were, removed similar is yet, and the which, eeted at sweep of the er parts entrance coneerns
a grood ded, for hat Mr. rywhere


AFTER DINNER: A FAMILY SCENE in China.
on his long travel abundanee of wholesome food. The prices in the grood agricultural distriets were very small. For instanee, at the eity of Liang-shan Hsien excellent beef and mutton, as well as the never-failing pork, was 2 d . to 3 d . the catty ( $1 \frac{1}{3} \mathrm{lbs}$.), eggrs five a penny, and other articles in proportion. Throughout the whole of his journey he received from the people nothing but civility and kindness, nor did an official even onee ask him to produce his passport, a proof that the Chinese are on their part loyally carrying. out the provisions of the Cheefoo convention.*
on the eompres litte m shared, of the Chinese, celed, an The Chi this poe the harb stationed commeres gravitate flour, rie exported exepptions the town Comeil o latest dat Enited $\mathbf{h}$ A1,677,01 landmarks of Hong of sampan interesting great warc nest of de recent visi Bonbry, travslipme for their d It is alrea liurther ext lines of m . submarine and wareho and the wi with busy soldiers and very unlike in time $g$, home. At Maeno hie $t$

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## Chapter IV.

## Cuina: Tine Octlying Colonies and Territonies.

Tie Chinese empire-either de facto or nominally-extended in aneient times so far that it is difficult to say what countries the Pekin authorities do not consider a more or less integral part of it. Many of the Asiatie Khanates now under Russian rule the Chinese maintain passively to be theirs, while, as all the world knows, Kuldja, which constituted the main portion of their old province of Dsungaria, has been receded to them, while Kashgaria, which a few years ago Yakoob Beg wrested from the conqueror, has again fallen into their hands, to remain how ling it would be rash to prophecy. Ammam, Burnah, and Siam the Emperor is understood to recognise as really tributaries, whatever he may do diplomatically The Shan States are no doubt considered in the same light. The Loochoos we have seen are in dispute (Vol. IV., p. 302), and though Cambodia and Cochin China have passed out of the Emperor's hands, the archives of Pekin reeognise the alienation of no part of the ancient territories of the Cousin of the Moon, and it is just possible that his ministers may dream of recovering in the fulness of that time-in waiting for which tho Chinese excel all the sons of men-Hong Kong from England and Amoorland from Russia. The last of these countries we have already deseribed: the firstnamed it will be now necessary to tonel briefly upon in deseribing the outliers of China, as well as those countrics which, like Corea and Mantchuria, acknowledge, either as tributaries or directly, the rule of Pekin.

## Hoxg Koxa.

This little islet, though now a British colony, is geographically a part of the province of Quan-tung, off the coast of whieh it lies, near the mouth of the Canton River ( p . 61). It is only about eight miles long and five miles wide, but within this area of thirty-two square miles-including the peninsula of Kowloon, on the mainland,
on the other side of the Lyeemoon Pass, which completes the insularity of the island-is compressed a population of over 140,000 , mostly Chinese, the whites numbering (in ISici) little more than 7,500 , and the Indian coolies under 1,500 . In ancient times this island shared, with various others, the name of "Ladrones," from the thieving or piratical character of the inhabitants. But in 1811 Great Britain, during one of our little wars with the Chinese, took possession of it. Neat year, by the treaty of Nankin, it was formally celed, and in 1861 the opposite pesinsula of Kowloon was added to the Colonial territory. The Chinese name means the "frag"ant stieams," and in picturesqueness it well deserves this poetical designation. Surrounded by villa-dotted hills, 1,000 to 2,000 feet high, the harbour of the chief town-Victoria-is one of the finest in the world. Here is stationed a naval and military force, which can at any time be called on to protect our conmerce, while in and about the town concentrates a large amount of trade, which has gravitated to it since the British obtainel possession of the place. Opium, tea, sugar, flour, rice, oil, amber, cotton, ivory, sandal-wood, silks, \&c., are largely imported and exported from Victoria; but the island itself produces little, and with a few unimportant execptions it can searcely claim any manufactures. There are municipal institutions in the town, but the Colonial Government is vested in a Governor, aided by an Exeeutive Council of five, and a Legislative Council of nine members. The revenue was at the latest date $£ 189,520$, and the expenditure a few thousands less. Its exports to the Linted Kingdom were, in $1878, £ 1,174,169$, and its imports from the same source $£ 1,677,017$. Victoria Peak, which is in reality the island, is one of the most prominent landmarks to vessels making for the Canton River-and to the visitor entering the harbour of Hong Kong for the first time from the Monsoon-tossed China Sea, the busy swarm of sampans, boats, junks, merchant and other ships through which he threads, form an interesting sight. Forty years ago the broad harbour, along the shores of which rise great warehouses, backed by fine villas on the cooler heights, was simply the haunt of a nest of desperaloes who infested the neighbouring sea. "Now," to use the words of a reeent visitor, "it is the great centre of trade and commerce, and vessels come from Bombay, Calentta, and Singapore, laden with the choieest products from those lands for transhipment to England, America, or our Colonial possessions, reeeiving in return tribute for tienir distant countries in exchange for teas and silk, opium, and other requirements. It is already sue of the most flourishing of our colonies in the East, and destined to still firther extension and greater importance. It has beeome the postal terminus of the many lines of mail steamers that arrive weekly from Europe and Ameriea, and now, with the submarine telegraph, is in instant com.nunieation with every place of importance." The offices and warehouses on the Praya, or quay, by the shore, are suggestive of busy commeree, and the wide streets, lined by houses built of stone, in the European fashion, crowded with busy pushing Englishmen, Chinese coolies, Iudians, and Parsees, as well as by British soldiers and sailors, look, nuless for the palanquins, which bere take the place of cabs, very unlike any streets in China, though they bear a family resemblance to those which in time grow up in every town oper the world wherever the Briton has made his home. At Hong Kong are held "the races," to which visitors from Shanghai, Canton, and Macao hie themselves, as to the great event of the year, and in the city itecif llourish all tho


A street in hono kong.
"institutions" which Euglishmen love so dearly, in addition to a few peeuliar to the East and to itself. The Chinese quarter is built quite apart from the English one, and though the streets are wide and comparatively airy, it is as dirty, and to English ideas as un-
comfortab do popula business, as they d where one fact they her back, they are d tiel round to float, bu
being consid and pictures of Victoria from healthy peak that giv invalids, in station. Ad fury that gr seen that to must be mad not alone ker Hong Kong who have flo
comfortable, as a Chinese town almost invariably is. In addition to the tolerably well-todo population who live in houses, there are thousauds who are born, reside, follow their business, and die in the sampans, or family boats, which cover the harbour of Hong Kong, as they do those of most other towns of China. The children are stowed away in a space where one can scarcely imagine it possible for an infant to survive. And as a matter of fact they do not always escape violent death. The mother rows with a child strapped on her back, and at the age of two or three the other begins to learn the simple art by which they are destined to carn their bread. Some little care is taken of the boys, for a gourd is tied round their neeks, so that if they aceidentally fall overboard they may have a chance to float, but the girls are allowed to take their chance, one or two less in a Sampan family


Iaw of the haplds of the chl-kiang, canton, on pearl hiver,
being considered no loss to the others. Yet, notwithstanding the beauty of the scenery and pieturesqueness of the villas and the Government House perched along the steep sides of Vietoria Peak, surmounted by the signalling apparatus, Hong Kong is said to be far from healthy. The sea breeze, whieh ought to cool the town, is shut out by the high peak that gives the island so pleasant an appearance; and as the place is so hot in summer, invalids, in spite of sanitary precautions, are disagreeably frequent from the Hong Kong station. Add to this the occasional prevalence of typhoons, which sweep along with such fury that granite pillars and iron bars snap as if they were glass rods, and it will be seen that to make money in Hong Kong is not unattended with drawbacks. Yet money must be made. The fine cathedral, Government House, clubs, and public buildings, would

East hough 3 un- not alone keep an eager Anglo-Saxon population together, and the best proof of all that Hong Kong is a place where coin can be picked up is supplied by the swarms of Chinese who have flocked to it during the last thirty years, and built that remarkable town of
theirs which "skirts the bay and serambles upwarls and onwards over the liill behind." Victoria, or Hong Kong, as it is universally called in ordinary converse, is, though not a moral town, a comparatively quiet one. There are already, among the one hundred and forty thonsand Celestials on the island, forty thousand of British birth. $\Lambda$ disorderly Chinaman is uncommon, and a lazy one probably does not exist. He is rarely out of employment, for he will turn his hand to anything: hence beggars are seldom met with in the streets; hence, also, unhappily, among their other industries, that of picking pockets is included. In this pursuit they are very adroit, and in the allied art of asking half as much again for anything than they intend taking they aro perhaps equally skilled and unprineipled. "The houses and shops are most curiously constructed, and just as strangely fitted up; not one, however small or poor, but has its domestic altar, its joss, and other quaint and eurions arrangements known only to these peculiarly strange people. Look where you will there are evidences of the customary industry and enterprise of the surprising sous of Shem. $\mathrm{U}_{\mathrm{p}}$ every alley and in every street we see crowds of little yellow faces, and stumble against brokers or merchants hurrying on to their business, elad in tho universal blue jean jumper and trowsers, cotton soeks, and shoes of worked silk with thick wooden soles; some with and others without hats; the shaven face and pigtal so typifying the class, that to note a difference between Sun Shing or Wang IIeng is sometimes most embarrassing. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men. The curious, built-up style the marricd ladies have of wearing their hair gives them a strange appearance; while the younger lasses allow theirs to hang down their backs in tresses, or wear it bound tightly over their foreheads, and seeured an chignon. Their cheeks are tinted bright pink, and with their neat little feet and clenn and loose clothing they make a very pretty pieture. Although great numbers of other nationalities are to be seen, the Chinese are most conspicuous and interesting to the stranger; and when once the business of the day has begm, the din and traffic are enormous, for crowds of men of all creeds and coloursJew, Pagan and Christian, Buddhist and Parsee, Chinese, Japanese and European-fill the streets, while gangs of coolies chant to keep step, as they press on beneath their heary burdens. The merchants, whose places of business lie along the Queen's Road, are so similar in appearance that a description of one will appiy to all. He is generally a fat round-faced man, with an important and business-like look, wearing the same style of clothing as the meanest coolic-but of finer material-and is always clean and neat; his long tail, tipped with red or blue silk, hanging down to his heels." Lest the reader may, after reading the gruphic description of Mr. Spry, imagine that IIong Koug is a model town, it may be as well to remark that though the Europeans are no worse than their neighbours, and rather more sociable than Europeans usually are, nearly everybody in the small community knowing each other, and to some degree being "in the same boat," are not so addicted to that "snobbery" which in the East is the prevailing vice of our esteemed countrymen, the Chinese are even worse in some respeets than when under their own rulers. They are certainly not idle-the Government sees to that-but many of them ars roguish to a degree that is embarrassing to the Hong Kong jailer, whose duty it is to find housc-room for them. The freedom and protection afforded to all nationalities by our larws, attracted to the coiony the scum of the neighbouring Chinese towns, and though
many of active en mpertiona which it not alwa owing to not alway houses, al was prod in the $n$ Hong K the plan The English : give endle in its mic piratical $\mathbf{r}$ pirates sh and at a some of $t$ not far fro secured wit stands of against the there is an all nations. themselves of the poli specimens and Ameri saries are Large num demands it money was an income their extray lishments an in the most competition is not calcula British mer enable the the English
many of these ruffians lave beeome reformed charaeters, a good many of them still give aetive employment to the police. Gambling-houses and music-halls-with other even more questionable resorts-are common; and though the Government tries, by licensing vices which it is impossible to suppriss, to get the vicious elements under its control, it does not always succeed, partly owing to the prevalence of the evil, and partially also no doubt owing to the inefficieney of the police and the temptation which they meet with-but do not always shun-to aceept bribes. At one time the Government licensed the gamblinghouses, and drew a revenue of 14,000 dollars a month from them; but though the system was proluctive not only of a large inerease to the Colonial income, but of an improvement in the morals at onee of the police and their charges, public opinion, which even in Hong Kong is not without a vague, arbitrary kind of conscienee, was against it, and the plan was abandoned, though from what we can learn the vice has not gone with it.

The town-both British and Chinese quarters-swarms also with low dens kept by English and Chinese, frequented by the seamen in port, and the habitnés of which give endless trouble to the police and the police magistrate. That Hong Kong contains in its midst even yet some of the elements which in pre-Britannic times gave it a piratieal reputation, is demonstrated by the fact that a few years ago a number of pirates shipped as passengers on board the steamer going up the Canton River, and at a convenient opportunity rose and captured it, murdering the officers and some of the passengers, and after ransackiug it of what they wanted, ran it ashore not far from Macao. Since then the Chinese passengers of the lowest class are carefully seeured within a padlocked enclosure, guarded by a sentry, and in the cabin are several stauds of arms, so that, if need be, the more respectable passengers can be armed against the possible pirates. Like every other place on the face of the earth where there is anything worth preying on, Hong Kong is periodically visited by adventuress of all nations. But, as it might be expected, the people are shrewd enough to amuse themselves with sueh specious characters, and if they do not recommend them to the atteution of the police, usually send them on their way-not rejoicing. There are, in Hong Koing, specimens of almost every commercial people on the face of the earth, but the English and Americans are the chief merehants. Living need not be dear, for nearly all neeessaries are about the same price as at home, but the habits of the residents make it so. Large numbers of servants are requisite, cither for comfort or beeause conventionality demands it; and the ideas of the people having been formed on a seale graduated when money was more abundant than it is now, it is found that to live in Hong Kong takes an income about twice what it would in England. The English are especially noted for their extravagance in housekeeping. Even the "junior messes" in their mercantile establishments are the wonder of the fresh arrivals. The assistants are lodged and maintained in the most luxurious fashion, though now nothing compared with what they were before competition became too brisk to allow of waste, and hence a long residence in Hong Kong is net ealenlated to promote that thrift, or even regularity of habits, essential to the complete British merchant, however mueh the talk and habits of these bachelor establishments may enable the noviee to aequire sound notions on the subjects of wines and cuisine. Next to the English and Americans come the Germans as commercial claimants for the trade of the
port. They are usually better educated than the linglish. They speak two or three languages, are keener, less extravagant, and conduct their establishments with more regard to economy than do the linglish. Hence thoy aro rather sneered at, though it is just possible that in commerciul transactions the Teutons stoop to artifices which the English seorn to practice. But their competition has resulted in the reduction of the English establishments, for it was found that if the latter were to keep the lead which they had obtained they could do so no longer with the old babits, whieh were entirely unsuited for hard times, when mon-j is no longer almost thrown at the merchant, but has to be laboriously struggled for with new and eager rivals, whose ideas are the ideas of the era of telegraphs and steamers, and who care nothing for the traditions of the good old times,


A CHINESE CAKT,
over which at Hong Kong, as at Shanghai, the ancients grieve with what is doubtless an unaffected sadncss. Hong Kong is, however, still a most hospitable colony. He must be a very unobtrusive visitor indeed who does not learn this fact, and the "cheese-paring," about which the old residents talk so much, has not yet extended so far that an Englishman is ever left in Victoria city in want.

The climate is a sore point with the Hong Kongers, and indeed, if all the tales told are truc, there is more in the request to "go to Hong Kong" than would at first sight appear in that contemptuous ejaculation. Its evil reputation we have already noted. For six months in the year the island enjoys dry and rainless weather, but when the heat and the wet come together "the sky seems to descend and rest like a sponge on the hill," which in itself would be a matter of no great consequence. But as always happens, the sponge is squeezed, and the contents descend in torrents which wash the strcets, and as soon as the sun rises envelop the town and island in a hot unbealthy vapour. Then




A btheet in heng kong.
all the little world of Hong Kong becomes limp, and damp, and mouldy, with seareely energy enough left to languidly weary for the dry weather and the sea breezes, which for half the year Victoria Peak so jealously keeps out.*

- Thomson: "Straits of Malacca," p. 203. Mr. Thomson's account of Hong Kong is acknowledged to bo one of tho best extant, but, contrary to tho almost universal opinion, ho oonsiders tho island "ono of tho healthiest stations on tho coast of China." The last words may be a saving clause, for the "const of China" is not healthy. Yet, even with this qualification, naval officers will not altogether agree with this excellent writer and obsorver.


## Corea.

From Hong Kong to Corea is a long voyage, for the little island lies at one end of China and the Peninsula at the other extremity of the coast. But the vogage is even a greater one politically than it is physically. To Hong Kong all the world is invited to buy and scil: from Corea all the world is as jealously shat out as were traders and travellers a few years ago from Japan. "Chosen," as the conntry is called by the natives, was known to China from a very early period, though it was not until about the eleventh century that the seattered states of which it was originally composed became welded into one monarehy, which has always remained an integral part of the Chinese Empire-Mongol or Tartar. The Japanese, howevel, have had something to say in the affairs of the Peninsula; for, irricated by the aggressive character of the Coreans, they invaded the country and for a time occupied great part of it. indeed, up to the year 1790, the Corean king was compelled to send an embassy to Japan to announce his acces ion; but beyond the faet that anmually a mission bearing tribute is sent to Pekin, the Coricans have remained almost unknown to the world, and maintain a state of .complete isolation from any other people. Towards the close of last century the Roman Catholic missionaries managed to get a footing in the Peninsula, and made some progress among the Buddhists, but in 1860 the last of the priests were either assassinated or compelled to escape by aid of their converts from the conntry. Corea was not, however, to be allowed to enjoy that happy existerce which, aceording to Montaigne, consists in being enunyeuse-forgetting the world, and by the world forgotten. The murder of some of the French missionaries brought on the scene Admiral Roze, who in 1866 destroyed the town of Kanghoa, with its military establishments, but his exertions were fruitless in obtaining any concessions as to trade or foreign intercourse. As little effectual-among other attempts-was the expedition of the United States' Admiral Rodgers, in 1870. He foreed his way up the River Hang-Kiang to Haniang, Scoul, or Seyonl, the capital; but beyond the fact that he expended much gunpowder, and fored the Coreans to do the same, the Admiral returucd as he had arrivel. The Japanese were, however, more successful. The eloquence of their envoys-aided by the possible eloquence of their ironclads-has succeeded in opening two ports-Fusan-po and Gensang-to the traders of Nippon, in gaining permission for a Japanese envor to permanently reside at the eapital, and among other minor advantages for Japanese vessels to enter Corean ports when in distress. In addition, an area of twentyfive miles from Gensang-which is forty-five miles from the capital-is assigned as a region in which the Japanese settlers may vander freely. The town of Gensang is situated in the province of Tokugen, and is intersected by two highways, known as Kankyo and Kagen. The harbour is one of the best and busiest on the eastern coast of Corea, and its inhabitants are noted for their familiarity with business matters. A proof of the importanee of the place may be found in the fact that the natives have conferred the name of gensantsu upon a certain fish in great demand in the country, because it appears that the price of the commodity can only be established by that of the town market. Something onalogons was formerly the case with all kinds of merchandise in Japan, where
everything had, nominally, to pass through the marts at Osaka. Of late years, however, Gensang has ceeeived a check in its aetivity from the rivalry of the neighbouring eity of Basan, a eisoumstance which at first induced the belief that the Japanese Government had asked for the opening of the latter port. But as Gensang; is only twenty "ri" that is, forty-five miles-distant from Fusan, the deeision has been arrived at, with justice, that it would not be advisable to have two commercial factories in such close proximity to each other. Another reason for the preference shown to the site selected is that it contains more than 2,000 houses, and it is hoped that when the Japanese concession and the works of the new harbour are terminated, the town will more than regain its former consequence, and overtake, in the extent of its trade, both Fusam and basm. Now that all arrangements are completed on the cast coast, the Japas ase Government is having a survey made along the peninsular zhores of the Yellow Sea, with the object of making choice of a western porl, the authorities at Ilamiang having by treaty consented to allow a settlement there also. The viciuity of a village called Saibutsu would be admirably adapted for the purpose, although there is only a population of about 100 souls. The Coreans deem it their best statategic position in that part of the territory. It is near a famous eastle named I : ojo, and a large fortress las been erected hard by.* These concessions constitute the thin edge of the welge, which cannot fail eventually to open up Corea to the consaree of the world, muel to the material welfare of the people, though possibly not quite so much to their moral advancement.

We really know very little about this mysterious peninsula, exsept that it is about three and a quartor times larger than Seotland, and is sn mountainous that a French missionary has eompared its surface to the sea under the iuflumee of a gale of wind. The highest peaks, however, do not exceed 9,000 feet, and most of them are much lower; but there is no part of the eomntry so flat that it can be styled a plain. The coast line is not very irregular, leing broken into bays and harbours only here and there. The eastern shore presents to the voyager along it the appearance of steep eliffs, here and there declining into sandy dunes, but the sonth and west coasts are more irregular, and guarded by a number of small islands, the largest of which is Quelpart, forty-six miles long; but the Port Hamilton group, owing to the fact of their containing a good harbonr, will be of greater future importance to whoever holds them. The country is also interseeted by a mumber of rivers, some of them navigable for large vessels. The elinate, on the whole, is more equable, owing to the south-west monswon, than that of the continental portion of North China, but is subject to extremes of cold in winter and heat in summer, and is, moreover, very wet. It produces most of the fruits of Errope indifferently well; and in addition gives good returns of tobaceo, rice, wheat, rye, millet, cotton, hemp, and ginseng.* The potato also grows very well; but the Government having interdieted its use, it is now only growing sarreptitiously in some of the outlying distriets, though its general cultivation would add greatly to the welfare of the population. Coal is abundant, but little used, while the workiag of gold, silver, and copper-also

[^22]plentiful-is prohibited under severe laws. Sheep and goats saceed excellently, but the king has alone the right of rearing them, and even then their use is restricted to sacrificial purposes. The don is considered a more dainty article of diet, and in addition, cattle and pigs are eaten. Small but strong horses are phentiful, and the nsual wild animals of North China are found in moderate abundance in the less settled districts. The eight provinces into which the kinglom is divided contain many walled cities, but none of them of any magnitiecene. The king is a vassal of China. He reigus as an absolute monarel, and in his prerogative and the divine afllatus which surromds him, is considered even more sacred a personage than his suzerain. The king rules, aided by three ministers and a number of judges, and eadl province is presided over by a governor. But the mbility have oltaiued inordinate privileges, and in reality oppose the people on one side, and encroach on the royal prerogative on the other. The army consists of all persons capable of bearing armsthe nobles execpted-amd, theoretically at least, every office of state is open to any person who can, under the Chinese system of competitive examination, attain the necessary degree; but corruption universally prevails, in spite of the existence of a class of oflicials corre*ponding to the Chinese "censors" (p. 51 ), whose duty it is to privately supervise the acts of the ligher dignitaries in the provinces. Thougl prolygamy is not permitted, conenbinage is, and women held a very low rank in the domestic life of Corea. Filial piety is, however, carried to an extreme even unknown in China, and the ties of bloor? are recognised in a manner which would shane the proverlial "fortieth cousin" of the Seottish Highlands.

The people, who are said to mumber about eight and a half millions, are nevertheless miserably poor, and their houses and dress bear witness to their impecuniosity. There is little trade in the comery, but it is increasing. The Japanese and other foreign gools imported at Fusam-po did not, during any year from $18 i 6$ to $14 i 8$, amomnt to more than half a million dollars in value. But during 1876-i9 Corem prolucts to the value of over t 90,000 were brought to Japan. These consisted for the most part of rice, white beans, hides, gold dust, "irico," poque silk, and bones. The imports for Japan were valued at tis,(000), and consisted of shirtings, lawns, T'cloth, copper slals, and cotton yarn. Of the fonports, however, less than $t 11,000$ worth were Japanese products. Twenty-four Japanese steamers, and about 150 sailing vessels (junks), entered and left the pert of lusan.* The roads are miserable, and consequently wheeled carriages are not in use (p. 69). At the markets or fairs most of the commercial intereourse of the prople is carriel on, but as ach peasant usually supplies limself with all his needs, there is not a great prospeet of wealth to be derived from Corea, at least mutil permission to open up the mines is acemrded to foreigners. Paper is one of the few articles in the manufacture of wheth they exeel, and as the Japanese use paper for ahmost every purpose in life, food excepted, there may spring up a brisk intercourse between them and the Coreans in this stapte. They are skilled workers in metal, and in Eastern Asia Corean sabres and poniards bear much the same reputation as Damasens blades onee did in the West. But at present nearly all transactions must be effectat by barter, for, with the exception of a few small eopper coins, there is no metium of exchange in use. Finally, when we add that anything worthy the name of a byidge is maknown except in the capital,

[^23] is, howcognised hlands. ertheless There is n goods ore than of over te beams, talued at Of the Jupanese Fusim.*
At the 1, lut as Irospueet mines is of which excepitel, s staple. urds bear present If a few when we capital,
the baekward state of the country, compared with China and Japan even when tirst opned to Europeans, may be imagined. The Japanese are, however, not likely to leave many stones unturned in order to effect a profitable intereonse with their neighbours. It may nevertheless be taken for granted that the Coreans will do all they can, both from their own inclinations and by the instigation of the Chinese, to limit this as far as possible. Even at present the Chinese and Japanese junks, which fish trepang (Vol. IV., p. it: )

anl herrings off the eoast, are not allowed to land their crews or eargoes, or to hold any intercourse with the people.

As in China, education is held ia high esteem in Corea, and is ostensibly the o.aly means of entering the Government serviee; but the higher elass greatly negleet their own language, preferring to use, both in emversation and writing, the Chinese tongue; and wen the shopkeepers employ it on their sign-boards and amouncements. The result is that the onee extensive litenature of Corea has dwinded down to insignifieant proportions, and the purity of 'le native language is now merely preserved by translations
of Chinese works, a few peetical collections, romances, and less important treatises. When Admiral Roze eaptured the eapital, he found carefully preserved in one of the buildings a library of upwards of four thousand books, bound in green and crimson silk. One volume, evidently highly valued, consisted of a series of marble tallets united by copper-gilt linges. Each tablet was embedded in a cushion of scarlet silk, and the letters were of enerusted gold. The native language is of the so-called "Turanian" family, but it is now much mingled with Chinese words, which, however, are made to undergo the regular Corean declension.*

The religion of the country has also undergone a metamorphosis at the hands of the Chinese. At onc time it was Budlhism, but since the introduction of the deetrines of Confucius, in the fourteenth century, they have been gradually displacing the older faith, until at the present time they are almost univer. .lly adopted, though with the admixture of various indigenous superstitions, from which the purer form of worship pratised in China is exempt. The educated classes have even further advanced, until their religion mainly consists in the worship of ancestors, with the attendant ceremonies eonneeted with births, deaths, funerals, and mourning. Soothsayers are, however, held in high repute, and as blind men are supposed to have prophetic power, the sightless people of the country have formed themselves into a regular professional guila, whose services are greatly in demand, to use Mr. Webster's words, "for the discovery of seerets, the foretelling of the future, and the exoreising of devils. In this latter operation they trust prineipally to noise as a means of frightening the spirits, whom they ultimately eateh in a bottle and carry off in triumph." The Coreans, as both the Americans and the Freneh lea ned to their cost, are no despicable enemies. Their cannon were found to be well-finished breech-loaders, and though their boats and junks are fastenel together without a metal mail, they are very fair speeimens of Oriental vessels. At the present time a great deal of illicit trade goes on letween the Chinese and the Coreans at the palisade-gate, and other places on the frontier, and mueh Manehester cotton finds its way into the conntry. Indeed, the Coreans themselves declare that at one time they imported thirty thousand pieces of foreign mannfactures yearly, and as they camot possibly produce grods as cheaply as we conld sell them to their planters in exchange for raw material, there may in time be a chance of opening up a trade with this exclusive people, their exclusiveness, however, being more artificial restrictions put on them by their rulers than any desire on their part to keep apart from the world.

Their mines are mudoubtedly rich, and their other produets quite equal to those of China and Japan. Their cotton is, indeed, not much inferior to that of the Carolinas, and would doubtless command a ready market. One of their chief articles of trale with the Chinese would, however, experience a less enger demand. This is human hair, the abundince of which is aceounted for by a eurious Corean enstom. The boys' hair is allowed to grow mutil it ean be divided in the middle and the hind portion phited into a "tail." At marriage the tail is ent off and sold to the Chinese.

On the borders of Corea and China, safe from either in their momntain fastness, live a peenliar semi-savage Mantehu race, who employ themselves in collecting medicinal roots and

[^24]in enting down trees, which they float down the rivers to the Ya-lei-kiang, in the valley of which some of them also live. They appear, likewise, to find gold in abundance, for they invariably pay the balanee in their dealings with the Chinese and Coreans in that metal.*

## Mantchema.

The foniaders of the present or "Tsing" lynasty of Chinese rulers-who aseended the throne in 164-were originally eliiefs of the Mantehu Tartars-semi-savage nomads who roamed in the country north and east of China. This region of Mantehuria is still a part of the Chinese empire, and, owing to its being the natal country of the emperors, is especially favoured by then. It is divided into three provinces, though one of these-viz., Southern Mantehuria, or Shinking-is almost a part of China proper, and in our notice of that part of the empire has been briefly touched upon (p. d(1). Central Mantehuria, known as Kirin, or Tehilin, is less ineorporated, while Ho-lung-ehiang, or Northern Mantehuria, is the Chinese part of the Amoor comntry, the greater part of which we have seen ( $p$ p. $6-10$ ) has been alsorbed by Russia. These regions are usually known as Tung-san-shêng-the "three castern provinces." The first-named divisim, also sometimes called Liao-tung, having been already notieed, may in this brief sketeh le dismissed. Kirin, or Central Mantehuria, is usually represented on the map as being bounded for some distance on the west by a palisade or stake defence. This is, however, something very different from the famous great wall whieh was built across the provinces of Pe-chili and Shanse to keep out the Tartars, and which still, in greater or less integrity, remains. In truth, "the barrier of stakes," whieh is pourtray with sueh circumstantiality on all the maps of China, exists merely in the imagination of the Emperor and the chartographers. There is, aecording to the report of Mr. Williamson, only "a sort of sate at the passes, and a ditch or shadow of a fence for a few yards on either side." The whole area of the country may be estimated at 135,000 square miles, and like Southern Mantchuria may be divided into two portions-one prairie and the other moun-tainous-the first being, however, only a small area compared to the north-east corner "within the link of the Soongari" river. The mountain regio is very fine, some of the peaks rising to the height of from 10,000 to 12,000 feet, and covered all the year round with snow on their summits. Often also in the middle of the plains may be seen comical peaks, isolated from every range, and appearing at a distance "like a number of dish-covors on a large dining-table." Through it course the Soongari, Hurka, and Usuri, the waters of all of which eventually find their way into the Amoor. Indeed, it is doubtful whethei the first should not be considered the continuation proper of that river. Central and Northern Mantchuria may thus be considered "one huge basin, corrugated by several mountain ranges, with their respective streams, the mouth of the basin

[^25]lying towards the north-rast." The extremes of climate are more marked than in Southern Mantehmia, but as the shortness of the summer season is compensated for by the rapility of the growth and maturity of the crops, the weather does not interfere with agriculture. Mr. Williamson, from whom we derive nearly all our knowledge of this part of China, deseribes the country from Pet-tua-na eastward as a level plain, only broken by insignifieant mudulatous, and eovered for the most gart with a waving sea of tall grass, varied by a


MoN(aOL K.M.KH.A.
little brushwood, a few trees, and cultivated patches in the vieinity of hamlets. The menotony of the prevailing scenery is, however, more than eompensated for by the variety, beanty, and frequent boldness of the monntain districts, and the ever-chunging aspects of the hills and valleys, woods and streams, and the extreme luxuriance of the temperate vegetation. The contrast between this region and Shan-tung, further sonth, is remarkable. In the former province (p. 33) the tops of the hills are bald: in this part of Mantchuria they are as green as in Scotland, and in places cultivated to the summit. On the tops of every high ridge are fom oaks, elms, and witlows of such huge size that they look as luxuriantly clothed as some of the islands in the Iudian archipelago. Here the
severe
at the peri China, for They get their hirth conrse of turn out
severe winter frosts frecze the moisture in the suil, su that when the summer heats come with all their foree the segretation is supplied with abmatame of water. In the regins further sonth the contrary prevails. In shan-tumg there is little frost, and ar-



A sanditorm in the besert.
at the period when it most requires it. Socially, Mantehuria is really only an extension of China, for the greater portion of the inhabitants are emigrants from the northern provinces. They get land at nominal prices, and their industry not being left behind in the land of their hirth, they are gradually comverting waste lands into rieh farms, and are likely in conse of time, owing to the better climate and the more abundant supply of food, to turn ont a finer race than their relatives in China proper. There is, however, such an 170
enormons tract of country to be settled that it will the ages before much impression can be made on it, and unler good government it onght to attract much of that immigration which is flowing into foreign comentries.

In adlition to the Chinese, there are a considerable number of Mohammedans settled in Mantchuria. They are the proprietors of many of the best restanmants in the towns, and their lodging-honses for the traveller are usually kept much more cleanly than those of the Sinetie infitel. Their religion also keeps them apart, physically and socially, from the Chinese, but to foreigners they are well disposed. The Mantchus, euriously enongh, are now in a minority, and so mpidly has the proeess of amalgamation been going on that there is at this day some diflienlty in distinguishing betreen them and the Chinese. In the central provinee they are for the most part agrieulturists, and in dress, mamers, customs, and language are Mantchn no longer. They are, indeel, gradually dropping their own tongue, and it is only the youths, who from their position or prospects are expected to cultivate the ancient language, who take the trouble to go to the Manteln schools established in some of the larger towns. Nomad Mantelus are few; indeed, Mr. Williamson in all his journeys met none, and is inclined to think that their nomadic propensities have died out. Even the soldiers drafted from Northern Mantehuria, thongh wilder in appearance than their brethren from the south, are, when at home, agriculturists. Yet there is plenty of room for vagabond propensities did these exist, for the land is great and the population small.

Most of the setilements are along the lines of travel, but away from these the country is thinly dotted with farms and villages. Altogether, Mr. Williamson calenlated nine years ago the population of central Manehuria to be about $2,000,000$, and the official statistics, or rather estimates, for the three provinces put it at $12,000,000$. Of the cities, Kirin Oola is one of the finest, and perhaps one of the most beautifully situated in China. Built on the bauks of the majestic Soongari, at the foot of a range of hills which form about three-fourths of a eirele around it, it could not be better placed as regards picturesqueness. But the narrow, unflagged streets, and the low-ronfel, poor houses, stamp it as a town of third-rate rank architecturally. Many of the squares are, however, tastefully ornamented, and some of the streets are paved with Hocks of wool. Its chief commerce consists in the building of junks and boats, for which industry the abundant supply of wood gives it great facilities. The country is, as a rule, fertile, the soil being over great tracts a deep fat loam, apparently formed ly the decay of vegetation, so that after the brushwood and trees-where they are found-are clearel off, little labour is needed to seeure good crops. Pulse is the chief crop. Maize is also cultivated extensively, and the surphs wasted in distilling a kind of whisky; but wheat, barley, and potatoes, though grown to some estent, are not highly appreciated. Another erop, which has only been introduced within the last few years, is now attaining ominous and alarming properties. This is opinm, now considered the most profitable oceupant of the soil ; and though illegal, its growth lecere, as in other parts of the empire, is winkel at by the corrupt mandarins. Its effect, not only on the parts of the country into which it is sent, but on the growers themselves, is deseribed as being impossible to exaggerate. Men and women are becoming almost universally
addicted Indigo is the spread remarkable been intro the herb Mantelous Midule Ki empire. minxes, anu as yet nei my great

Tigers on the floce whes, wilh oxen, sheep lerie--are salmon are among the nerly dresse insect swarn as along the

Norther and more th regions appe In the form in the latter though fine, almost entire we describel the soil is ri excellent past Central Mant land." The of North Chi enough, for $t$ ant thongh enpire might whole of Nor fite of the gr times confoun Coreans, and
Saghalin (Vol.
addicted to smoking it, and onee the habit is begnn there seems almost no cure for it. Indigo is also a profitable crop, and Mantchurinn tobaceo is famous all over China. Iudeal, the spread of tobacco culture over the empire, as well as its use by all chasses, is very remarkable. Tobaceo is believed, on what gromals I have not been able to learn, to have been introduced into Japan by the Dutch. The Japanese acted as the agents in briuging the herb over to Corea about 250 years ago. The Coreans, in their turn, made the Mantlus aequainted with it, and when the latter conquered China they brought into the Midlle Kingdom the drag which is now smoked by probably every man and boy in the empire. Coal has been found in the provinee, and it is probable that agates, cornclians, anyses, and other precions stones are not the only mineral riehes of the country, thongh as yet neither iron nor coal have been worked, nor indeed are they known to exist in any great quantities, though abmudant in the surrounding comutry.

Thigers of the Bengal species are common, and often commit considerable depredations o: the flocks, and even carry off human beings. Bears, polecats, weasels, foxes, sables, wilves, wild boars, stags, autelopes, rabbits, hares, \&e., abound ; and horses, mules, asses, oxen, sheen, dogs, eats, and pigs-especially in the vicinity of the large maize distil-leries-are common everywhere in the settlements. Trout, carp, pereh, pike, cels, and salmon are plentiful in the rivers. The last mamed, indeed, is a common artiele of fool among the natives, while their skins are prepared for summer clothing, and if properly dressel look very pretty. Suakes and other reptiles are too common, and the inseet swarms which fill the air are among the worst disagreeables of travel here, as well as along the valley of the Amoor further north and east.

Northern Mantehuria, Ho-lung-ehiang, or Tsi-tsi-har, is a much less inviting country, and more thinly populated, though its area is 197,000 square miles. The only cultivated regions appear to be in the valley of the Nonni and along the banks of the Soongari. In the former district are situated the cities of Tsi-tsi-har (or Pu-kwhe) and Mergen, and in the latter the smaller town of Hu-lan, in addition to several villages. The other parts, though fine, are either covered with forests and not likely to be soom reclaimed, or left almost entirely in a state of nature, even when consisting of fine open valleys such as those we deseribed in a former chapter (p. S). In time the country may be settled up, for the soil is rich, and the eattle which in plaees dot the prairies afford evidences of the excellent pastures in which they wallow. Otherwise the remarks already made abent Central Mantchuria may be said to apply generally to this part of the imperial "natal land." The region is well fitted for receiving the surplus population of China, especially of North China, but it is doubtful whether they will ever be able to people it rapidly enongh, for the Russians are anxious to colonise their part of the valley of the Amoor, and though their success has not hitherto been great, any minsfortme to the Chinese empire might be the signal for Sclav eivilisation to find its way further east, until the whole of Northern Mantehuria, and even of the central part of the country, met the fite of the greater part of the Amoor Valley. The Mantchus and the Mongols are sometimes confounded. In reality they are of different habits, though, in common with the Coreans, and perhaps the Tungoose, Goldi Giliaks (p. i), Manguns, the Orokaps of Saghatin (Vol. IV., p. 319), and the Japanese, of one stock. But while the Mongrols-as
has heen very chearly explained by Mr. Meadows*-cast on the great plains of Asia were compelled to be nomadic, the Mantehns, more highly favoured, had in Manteluria proper $\dagger$

a land of mountains and fertile valleys, and so lived by bunting, fishing, and agriculturc.
*Seo :llso, passim, Mr. Howorth's exhaustive "1listory of the Mongols" (1877--80).

+ The present Mautchuria comprehends some country which, though beyond tho great wall, und often pwhicully sepraiated from China, has from the earliest times been settled by Chinese agrieulturists, traders, and utisans.

The Mant winter in summer is the earlies never had pigs, whic much of $t$ a different from the generally race of he comtact wi Red Indian were divide over nonothet thus it ear known by chamacterist paid tribut weakness aggressive, then. In Mantchu e Mantebus oflices of while the the victors the present the Mante built, poss (p. 72). T1 pay more r improvable civilisation

The re country of "Tartar," u. classification

* Fleming: Mindehoue" (1

The Mantelms have ulways been a settled people. In mecient times they dwelt during the winter in eaves exeavated in the sides of dry banks, or in pits in the earth; and in summer in huts formed of boughs, coverel with bark or with loug wild grass. From the earliest periods they have reared horses and oxen, but, mulike the Mongols, they have never had eanels and sheep. On the other hand, they have been greater breeders of pirs, whieh latten on the abundaut mast shed by the great forests which cover so much of their comotry. The Mantehus approximate to Mongols in being hunters, but of a different kind of gane, and have, in addition, always derived mach of their sustemuce from the numerous rivers which interseet their comatry. The vague term "Tautar" is generally applied to the Mantelnus, but if by "Tartar" is to be understood a nomadie race of herdsmen the term is a mistomer, for at the perinh when a lettered race came in contact with them they presentent, aeeording to Mr. Meadows, a close resemblance to the Red Indians of Now Lugland and Camala at the date of the diseovery of Ameriea. They were divided into a mumber of tribes, but as from time to time one tribe gained the mastery over another, the vanguishen tribe dropped its ohl name in favour of that of the vieturs, and thas it eame to pass that before the Mantelus bore their present designation they were known by various other titles, landmarks of the progress of the conquering and absorbing damateristics of the people to whom they belong. In very carly times, the Mantelus paid tribute to China, but growing powerful, and taking advantage of a corresponding weakness on the part of their more eivilised neighbours, they begram to assume the aggressive, until in 1618 they routed a great army of Chinese and Coreans sent against them. In 1644 the Ming dynasty was eutirely displaced by the Tsing "pure," or Mautchu emperors, who to this day reign with madisputed authority. Since that date Mautchus have, as might be expeeted, really ruled the country, and oecupied most offices of profit and trust. But the "Tartar" sway has not been an oppressive one; and while the Mantehus have conquered China, the Chinese have conquered the Tarturs, by the victors having almost unconsciously imitated the customs of the vanquished, until at the present moment it is diffieult to distinguish the one race from the other, except that the Mantebus are rather lighter in complexion than the Chinese, somewhat heavier built, possess more beard, and as a rule are more intellectual-looking in appearance (p. 72). They are also less under the control of the Buddhist priests than the Mongols, and pay more respect to literature. Take them as a whole, they may be considerel the most improvable of all the Chinese people, and possibly present the best raw material on which civilisation and progress can work in Asia..*

## Mongolia.

The region of the Chinese Empire known under this name is not necessarily the country of the Mongols, for this enthnological term is, like the corresponding one of "Tartar," used very loosely and comprehensively. Indeed, it corresponds in Blumenbach's elassifieation of the human race to the Turanian of later writers, and includes not only

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the Mongols proper, but the Chinese, Indo-Chinese, Tibetans, Tartars of many kinds, Siamese, Japanese, Burmese, Liskimo, Samoyedes, Finns, Lapps, 'Turks, and even Hungariaus or Magyars-in faet, a heterogeneous collection of about balf of the human race. But though collectively no people have played a more prominent part in the listory of the world, the country of Mongolia proper is by no means an important region, nor are the nomadie hordes inhabiting it suggestive of the warrior seourges who, under Attila, erushed the Roman Empire, or under Genghis Khan and his suceessors formed the greatest empire the world ever saw. Mongolia, as defined by General Straehey, is the almost rainless region sloping in great grassy or stony plains towards the interier of the continent west of the Khingham range of momntains. The sight of these monotonous traets weary the eye, and, owing to the seanty pastures interspersed by deserts, are able to support but a thin population-estimated at 200,000 -compared with their enormous extent, and that of a nomadie charaeter, ever on the move in seareh of grass and water for their floeks of shec $;$, and camels, and herds of horned eattle, and horses. In the eastern part of the country the tribes, owing to contaet with the Chinese, are approximately eivilisel, but those in the western part of the region are so eruelly bar'arous as to make the country, in spite of the travels of a few adventurous explorers,* to a great extent a terra incognita. In the summer the heat is great, and the winter colds correspondingly severe. Mueh of it, owing to the little rainfall, is a hard stony desert, with here and there areas of blown sand. Exeept on the slopes of the higher monntains bordering or intersecting it, on which the rain falls more plenteously, or where the melting snow supplies water for irrigation, there are not many towns or settled villages. In such localities there is a little cultivation and some trees, but beyond these oases all Mongolia precents few spots fitted for the abode of civilised man. The Mongols are very pions, and in each of their circular tents there is almost invariably an image of Buddha. Milk, cheese, and the flesh of their floeks is their usual food, and dried excrement their almost only fuel (pp. 72, 77, 84).

## The Desert of Gobi.

Shut in by the Yablonoi Mountains, the Thian-shan, the Tibetan platean, and the Klinghan range-its eastern part almost coterminous with Southern Mongolia, and its western part merging into Eastern Turkestan-lies the great upland desert of Gobi. $\dagger$ It is a platean of some $1,200,000$ square miles, elevated between 2,000 and 0,000 feet above the sea, while there are mountain rilges which traverse this Central Asian wilderness reaehing in some parts to 10,000 or 12,000 feet. It is IIan-hai, or Dry Sea of the Chinese, a term which Richthofen has proposed to substitute for that ordinarily in use, in so far that it not only is suggestive of its present condition but of its former history. In reality it is the bed of an ancient sea, the shores of whieh eun still be traced with more or less distinetness, and is divided into two great basins. The western of these is intersected by the great Tarim River, which is swollen by tributaries from

[^27]the sut
the surrounding mountains, the course of which is as yet very inperfectly known, and which ends in nu inland lake, now very generally believed to be the famons Lob-nor, whose identification las for so many centuries been one of the prollews of Central Asiatic geography. Colonel Prejevalsky, to whom of late years almost ourr sole knowledge of this regio" is due, deseribes the country through which the Tarim flows ns one of the wildest and most unfertile in all Asia. A sadder desert it would indeed be difficult to imagine. A meagre fringe of tamarisks and reeds line its shores, while away to the south-irest streteh those drifting fields of sand which have immemorially given the conntry tho evil reputation it so deservedly bears. On the lanks, where a little moisture enables a seanty vegetation to settle, about 1,200 souls manage, ly the rearing of eattle and the cultivation of a little wheat and barley, to exist. The people, who are all Mohammedans-of the Kara Kalmuk, Khoshot, and similar tribes-ouly came to the Lob comntry, as the district of the Lower Tarim is callel, about 170 years ago. But hefore these Kalmuk emigrants came there were alonigines in the distriet .bont whom very little is known, except that they are small bliek men, with long matted hair, who shun the society of the new comers, and delight oo live with the wild beasts and the eattle in the thickets and brakes about the marshes. Liven the villages of the new comers are only a collection of reed huts, and though the people live a little better sinee agrieulture has been introluced among them, they still subsist chielly on fish, and the produee of their flocks, and the chase. But the Ameer of Kashgar, who during the short-lived era of his kinglom claimed to be their ruler, never could get any tribute out of them, while it is not very likely that the Chinese will be any more suceessful now than they were in former times. Some of their customs are extremely peceliar, and well worthy the attention of ethnologists, though they are of such a nature as to reuler these pages not the proper place for introducing them to a non-seientific audience. At oue time the population was much more numerous, but more than twenty years ago small-pox destroyed the majority of the inhabitants. Tlie Lake swarms with fish, and its margius at seasons are noisy with wild fowl; and among the reeds the tiger, wolf, fox, wild boar, hare, and other animals prowl, affording abundance of food and sport to the inhabitant, whose thoughts seem never to soar mueh higher than the material wants of the day. At one time the wild camel was numerous near the Lob-nor, but at present its ehief haunt is the desert of Kum-tagh, to the east of the Lake, though specimens are now and then come aeross in other districts. The eastern, or Shamo basin of the Gobi, is varied ly no water-courses, but seems to consist of a series of terraees, giving the country, according to the observations of Mr. Ney Elias, the appearanee of low hills or downs, with valleys and plains intervening, the whole of a rocky or stony nature rather than sandy, though patehes of sand do oeeur at intervals. Vegetation is rare, and consists of weeds, scrub, and "leath," with seareely a blade of grass, "and only a dwarfed and stuuted tree here and there in the gorges or passes of these low rocky ranges that at uncertain intervals cross the desert in almost parallel lines from east to west."*

But it is not this part of the desert whieh is of tho greatest interest-it is the region covered with the shifting sands towards tho west, and regarding which for long there have
"Journal of the Royal Giographical Sorict!, Vol. XLIII. (1873), p. 120; Riehthofen: "China," Vol. I. (1877)
been strange tales. It has been immemorially reported that ages ago there were cities here, and that they are now buried by the sand. Sir Donglas Forsyth, during his mission to Kia.horar, made careful inguiry into these stories, and the results of his researches are so

scente in the nerfrt of gomi.
curious that it may be well to devote a brief space to some account of the opinion he has arrived at. In the first place, it may be noted that such buried cities are not unknown in other parts of Asia. For instance, in 1565 Mr . Johnson visited an ancient city not far from Kiria, and four marches distant from Khotan, which had been buried in the sands for centurics, and from which gold and silver ormaments, and even a quontity of tea, were dug. When Colouel Prejevalsky crossed the sands of Kugupehi he also heavd tales of buried


treasure. This part of the desert is a suceession of hillocks, from forty to one hundrel fect in height, composed of yellow sand, the upper stratum of which, when disturbel by the wiml, blows on either sile of the hills, forming loose drifts, which have the appearance of snowdrifts. IIe describes the appearance of these bare yellow hillocks as being most dreary and depressiug. Nothing ean be seen but the sky and the sand: not a plant, not an animal is visible, with the single exception of the yellow-grey lizards which truil their bolies over the loose soil, and mark it with the patterns of their tracks. "A dull heaviness oppresses the senses in this inanimate sea of sand. No sounds are heard, not even the chirping of the grasshopper: the silence of the tomb surrounds you" (pp. 73, 80). Sich a melancholy seene has conjured up in the Mongol imagination strange tales of warriors who here fonght against the Chinese, whose countless slain Allah caused the wind to cover with the desert sand. "To this day the Mongols relate, with superstitious awe, how cries and groans may be heard in the sands of Kugupehi, which proceed from the spirits of the departed ; and that every now and then the winds, which stir up the sand, expose to view different treasures, such as silver dishes, which, thongh conspicuous above the surface, may not be taken away, because death would immediately overtake the bold man who ventured to touch them." Many similar traditions might be quotel of the overwhelming of citics by sand and of the treasures whieh still remain. Of course, such legends must all be taken with great allowance, but after sifting out of them the evident exaggerations and lies, there remains behind such a residnum of apparent fact that little donbt need be entertained of the existence of several such towns in this part of the country. Sir Donglas Forsyth and Dr. Bellew saw the traces of many in the part of the desert nearest Kashgar, and though they obtained neither gold nor silver, they obtained proof positive that these have been, and are yet found in other ruins, in addition to the coins of the Greek and Roman conquerors, as well as images of Buddha, which refer to a later date. The locality of most of these ruined eities is said to be many marehes east of Khotan, but near Ilchi, the chief city of Khotan, remarkable finds of great gold ornaments have been made. Sir Donglas Forsyth is inclined to believe that on the western part of the desert, at all events, the sand mounds are moving on, baring parts now covered, and covering regions now cultivated, and that in this manner the cities and houses which are known to be buried have been from time to tine overwhelmed. It is likely that before long we shall learn more of these interesting and mysterions regions from Prejevalsky, whose former explorations are so well known, as well as Count Széehényi, a Hungarian traveller, both of whom are making strennous efforts to effect an entrance in this part of Asia, and through it on to Tibet, to which we shall soon proceed.*

## Cimesee Turkestan.

Far away in the centre of Asia (p. 73) lies a region of sandy deserts, relieved by oases of great riches, and peopled by a warlike race, half barbarous, but extremely Moslem,

[^28]whose
whose wars, feuds, and conquests formed an important portion of the world's chronicles in the Middle Ages, and even in the earlier centuries of the Cluristian em. Then for a time their names almost faded ous of history, until recent events once more brought them prominently before the world. The most famons kingdom of this great Mediterranean is Little Bokhara, Kashgar, Eastern Turkestam, or Chinese 'Tartary, the name it bore for nearly a ceutury and a half, and whieh title, in the midst of the recent hurly-burly, it is destined to bear onee more. For some time prior to the ninth century the Chincse Empire extenled to the borders of Kokand and Cashmere; but soon after that date internal dissensious disturbed the country, and the Central Asiatie kingdom fell from the grasp of the distant rulers, who had enough to do to hold their own immediate subjeets in eheck. Then the native prinees eaeh grasped what they could, sometimes more, sometimes less; now giving rise to a Genghis Khun or a Timour Leng, who were only prevented by death from congueriug lalf the world; again fulling asunder into fragments under the successors of theso fieree wartior chiefs, until amid the eonfused turmoil we come down to the year 1720, when the Chinese began onee more to assert their power, and by 1760 had re-conquered the country afterwards known as Eastern Turkestan. Under their rule it continued until the year 1859, when the elements of decay once more begmen to develop themselves in the Chinese Empire. Rebels had risen up agaiust the Pekin anthority, and on every hand were successful. The Panthay ruler swayed over the Mohammedans in Yunan, the Taepings were at the leight of their career, and in Kan-su and Shen-si Mussulman insurgents sprang to arms. Under these cirenmstances the time seemed ripe for the Tungans-semi-independent tribes on the Kashgar border-rising and reclaiming the country for its oll masters. The latter called in the aid of Yukoob lbeg, a Kokand soldier of fortune, who, however, aecomplished his task fir too well for the taste of his employers, for not ouly dill he suceeed in driving out the Chinese, but by the year 1860 had crushed the Tungans also, and cstablished himself ruler of a Molammedun state whose capital was Kashgar. Here, ss Athalik Ghazi, Champion of the Faith, and Badaulet, the Well-beloved, he reigned up to the year 1877, when the Chinese, having settled affairs at home, began to once more bestir themselves in Central Asia. If their fall had been rapid their recovery in that region was even swifter. In the very first battle in which they encountered Yakoob he was defeated. Then immediately the mushroom kingdom seemed to slip from has grasp; city after city surrendered or was taken, tribe after tribe deserted him. Worst of all, the suldier king died himself, and after a brief but ineffectual staud by his sons and generals, the latter tled over the border into Russian territory, and the Chinese were, after the brief interregnum, once more masters of Eastern Turkestan.

Such, in a few words, is a brisf outline of the events whieh have led to this part of the world appearing under the bead of the outlying parts of the great empire whose capital is in Pekin rather than-as would have been the case if these pares hal been written a few years sooner-as an independent state.* Siuce the Clinese have become masters they have ruled with a rod of iron. Every relative or adherent of the Athalik Ghazi has been punished with a ruthlessness which ouly the
*The fullest history of Kashgar is contained in Mr. D. C. Boulger's "Life of Yukoob Beg" (1878), from which able work mumy of the facts in this sketch aro derived.

Chinese can display when their anger is ronsed. Thwasands of people have been slanghatered, and thousands more have been forced to seek sallety in exile. Hence, a country which, while under Yakiob Beg's rule was calculated to contain 8000,000 people, is now estimated to inelule within its 1000 , 010 sumare miles of territory not more than (600,000. Few conntries are more isolatend. East and west the Gobi besert and the Bular 'lagh, or l'amir Stepre, form its boundary; on the worth the Thian-shan, and on the

a mongol chair on the move.
sonth the Kuen Lun mountain ranges separate it from the rest of the world. With the exception of fertile oases here and there, Kashgaria is one wide undulating phin of sand and salt, 3,000 to 4,000 feet high, but sloping off to the east, in which direetion the Tarim River, already notieed (p. 79), flows until it loses itself in the Lob-nor. In the summer the elimate is very hot and dry, and in the winter extremely cold. Giaciers ereep down from the monutain ranges, supplying tributaries to the 'Tarim, and sometines by forming mountain reservoirs, whieh suddenly burst, earrying destruction far and near. Though the country is rieh in gold, silver, lead, eopper, iron, coal, jade, and other minerals, few of these are worked to any extent, and the population is chiefly massed in towns on

oases, either on the tributaries of the 'larim or on the outskirts of the mountains, where sone moisture emables the arid soil to bear erops of wheat, barley, muize, rice, eotton, Has, tobaceo, and hemp, or on which ean be pastured the sheep which grow the fine wool woven into the Curfun shawls, whieh hear so high a repute in Kashmir and other neiglsbouring countries. Outside these oases there is little to tempt the wayarer. Rain is rare, and saud-storms and whirlwinds frequent. In the summer the traveller broils under a merciless sky; in the winter deep snow covers the comntry like a white blanket. Trees are few, except by the water-courses, but aromad the villages are ustally groves of willow, poplar, and elm, in aldition to orchards of various fruit trees.

Of the cities Kashgar, though not the greatest, is the elief, sinee here Yakoub leg established lis capital. It is built on a plain on both sides of the little river known as the Kizel Su -but from its streets may be seen in the far distanee the snowelad peaks of the Thian-shan nud the Aksai Platean, with the lower hills intervening. The population numbers about 30,000 , and owing to the concourse of merelants from the Russian and other portions of the surrounding country-we ure speaking of what it was in Yakoob's day-the caravanserais and bazairs present a busier appearance than the actnal size of the place would seem to warrant. The town extends for some distance along the banks of the stream, but there are in it no bnildings of any beauty or pretension, the old palace of the Ameer itself being merely a great gloomy barrack, consisting of several buildings within buildings, the outer ones oecupied by the huuschold troops and officials, the imner ly the Anneer and his fumily. It is hardly likely that matters will have much improved under the Chinese reigime, for though the Chinese are more tasteful and domestic than the Asiaties of this part of the continent, their rule has up to date been such a continual hand to hand fight that the offieials and colonists have not had much time to develop the amenities of life. The Andyanis, or Khokandian merehants, were the most important elass in the town, and had Yakoob Beg been a more enlighitened ruler, or even allowed longer to remain on his throne, it ean hardly be doubted that with the trade he was opening up with Russia and India the city would in time have attained some of the prosperity which in old time attracted the almiration of Mareo Polo and the early Chinese travellers. A few miles from Kashgar is the Fort of Yangy Shahr (p. 89), which was one of the last places in which the Chinese held out against Yakoob Beg, and half way on the road to Yarkand lies the eity of Yangy Hissar, onee a place of some importance commereially and from a military point of view, but now fallen greatly into decay, though, owing to the exceptional fertility of the surrounding comntry, still not without influence in Kashgarian politics. The road the traveller must traverse in order to reach this town passes through the bamlet of Kokrobat, and skirts the barren, stony desert of Hameed, with its scanty patches of grass and ferv stunted shruls, and through tho busy little town of Kizil, where are situated furnaees for smelting the iron ore of the lower slopes of the Kizil-Tagh, or Red Mountains. Then come a number of little villages and a fertile plain, on which, on the left bank of the Sargrak, stands Yangy Ilissar, or Yanghissar, as its name is sometimes spelt. The town contains about 11,000 houses, huddled together in the wildest confusion-a booth for the sale of silks standing alongside of one used as a stall for the disposal of horseflesh. Yarkand the
ill-fited estimated hool it 59) is over ten medan $t$ in which their fee But, in town," ot commerce caravanse in grain, late Ame some case a protecti which are at the co ments of the moun the loaves similar ve especially dumplings case in th being con officious a sleeves on 'so many many unit mamner, Yakoob's system-t1 cach " tan required f it home.

The Kishmir, All work peasant ar
ill-fated Lientenant Hayward* describes as containing alout 40,000 houses, but he estimated the population of the half-desertel town at only 120,000 : in nll likelihool it is now much less. $\dagger$ Unlike Kushgar, which is an open town, Yarkand (pp. S5, s9) is defended by a strong wall, pierced by five gates, and the streets are never over ten or twelve feet wide, and lined with shops-euriously enough for a Mohummedan town mostly kept by women. Some of the honses possess an upper storey, in which the sharp-cyed observer may notico the women rocking the child's eradle with their feet, a spectacle which, as Mr . Shaw observes, is not common in the last. llut, in addition to its military and commereial importance, larkand is a "university town," on an expanded rather than a great seale. At the time the lamented pioneer of commeree we are quoting $\ddagger$ visited it, it possessel numerous mosques, colleges, and caravanseriis, or hotels, always erowded with merehants from every part of Asia, dealing in grain, fruit, nad leather, of which last article the consumption was very grent, the late Ameer not only using it for the boots and saldles of his troopers, but even in some eases for their uniforms also. Many of the bazaars and streets are roofed over as a protection against the sun's rays, and the town is well supplied with water from tanks, which are filled by camals. In every street during the summer ice is sold, icel sherbet, at the cost of a twelfth of a penny the cupful, being one of the most cominon refreshments of thirsty pedestrians. Pheasants and venison are brought in frozen from the mountains during the winter. Good bread is made "by steaming over boiling water, the loaves being placed in vessels with a false bottom, made of open woodwork. In similar vessels also are cooked various delieacies, which make good and savoury food, especially what the Turks call 'mantoo,' being little balls of forcemeat enclosed in small dumplings with gravy. They are really delicious." Mr. Shaw mentions that, unlike the case in the East generally, the bazars are not noisy with buyers and sellers, all bargains being conducted in a silent manner with the hands. "The seller, the buyer, and all the officions assistants who never fail to present themselves on this occasion, pull their long sleves over their hands, and in this way make bids on each other's fingers, saying, 'so many hundreds'-a pull of the fingers; 'so many tens'-another pull; and 'so many units'-another pull." No bargain seems to be thought valid unless made in this mamer, which, it may be noticed, was deseribed 500 years ago by Mareo Polo. In Yakoob's time - and it is not likely that the Chinese have been able to change the system-the silver "kooroos," an ingot of silver, consisted of nbout 1,100 "tangas," each "tanga," in its turn, containing twenty-five little copper cash, so that if change were required for a piece of bullion a donkey had at the same time to be hired to carry it home. Hence most transactions are done either on account or by barter.

The people are fairly treated. The "corvee," or forced labour, which is the rule in Kishmir, and even in the hill districts of the Punjaub, was unknown under Yakool's rule. All work done was paid for, and if insufficiently so the men refusel to do it. The peasant and coolie also work eheerfully, more like Englishmen than the listless Indian

[^29]laboururs, who would take funr days to do what these Sirkandians nccomplish in one. In lakoob Bey's time they were puid fourfence per day. But food is elemp, Flonr was selling in the spring oi betio at nheut a shilling for 20 lbs. weight, and it is said that before the rigime of lakent it was only one-third of that price, ladeed, in Lstis many of the people wearied for the returu of the Chinese, who allowed the taxes to be colleeted by the native oflicials, and did not in muy way interfere


MERCLANTS OF VALKAND, EASTELL TLUKIST.IN,
with the loeal administration so long as their moderate tribute was paid. But at the same time they allowed the offieinls to plunder prodigionsly, a course of action which Yakoob, contrary to the wont of Oriental potentates, strietly prohihited. Indeed, under the Chinese, Kashgar was only an inferior town, the seat of government being Yarkand, and here also were the chief Chinese merchants, who vanished when the new ruler made his advent. It is, therefore, only fair that the evidenee in favour of the much-abused Chinese Government should be given, for it enables us to see at a glanee the relative merits and demerits of the two régimes whieh in a few short years the Yarkandians have had experienee of. "What you see on market days now," was the observation of an intelligent
merchant Turlay or with a firr cal always 1 our nood

go out wit day is ma bought and Rais, with the women forbidden : who moved and all sor her faee an
merechant, "is nothing to the life and activity that was in the time of the Khitay (Chinese). Tioday the pasintry come in with their fowls and rgga, with their cotton and yurn, or with their sheep and cattle und horsess for sale, und they go back with printed cotton, a fur cap, or eity-made boots, or whatever domestic neecessaries they may repuire, mad always with a grool dimer inside them; and then we shat ur our shop and stow away our gools till next week's market-day brings buck our customers. Some of us, indend,


GATE OF THE YORT OF VANGY-KHAHM, FIYE MILES FHOM KASHGAH, EAETELS TUHKESTAN.
go out with a small venture in the interim to the rural markets around, but our great day is market-day in town. It was very different in the Khitay time. People then bought and sold every day, and market-day was a mueh jollier time. There was no Kazi Kais, with his six Muhtasib, armed with the dira, to flog people off to prayer and drive the women out of the streets, and nobody was bastinadoed for drinking spirits and eating forbiden meats. There were mimies, and acrobats, and fortunc-tellers, and story-tellers, who moved about amongst the crowd and diverted the people; there were flags and banners and all sorts of pietures floating at the shop-fronts; and there was the jallal, who painted her face and deeked herself in silks and laces to please her customers." "But were not the
people more depraved under this rule than rader the stricter system enforeed by the Athalik Ghazi?" "Yes, perhaps so," was the reply. "There were many rogues, and gamblers ton, and people did get drunk and have their pockets picked; but so they do now, though not so $p^{m b l i e l y}$, beeause we are under Islam, and the shariat is strictly enforeed." Still, there is another side to the question; for though the Chineso rule is tolerant to a fuult, it is lax, and the exactims, or "squeczes," of the tax-gatherer know, in this out-of-the-way part of the empire, no bounds. Under Yakool the villagers would soundly thrash a roguish official, and he did not dare to complain, because had he, the Ameer would in all likelihood have exeected him for his fraul. Under the Chinese the same collector may take as much as he pleases, so long as he brings to the imperial treasury the emperor's dues. Yet even in Turkestan they hold up their hands when they hear of Kashmir, in which the taxes are farmed out, and where, between one official and another, from two-thirds to three-fourths of the produce of the peasant's land are filehed from him.

About Yarkand are many vineyards. The vines are trained on trellis-work, alongside of which is a trench. During the dry summer this trench serves to bring water to their roots; and during the winter, to protect them from the cold, they are detachel from the woolwork and twisted down into the trench, where they lie, well bankel over with earth, until the spring comes. In the Kuen Lun Mountains are the fine quarries of jade, a mineral which forms an important article of trade in Eastern Turkestan, and is carved by the matives into many pretty ornaments. It is mined by a trench, being excavated on the top of a rock, and a fre !ighted in it. When the heat is believed to have penetrated deep enough, a quantity of cold water is suldeuly thrown into the trench, the result of which, of course, is the splitting off of considerable fragments; but the best pieces, and thoso freest from tlaws, are picked up in the beds of streams, when the long tossing about they have been subjected to has the effect of speedily discovering any cracks whieh exist in the mass, and which, if not detected soon enough, may render the carver's toil of weeks so much labour thrown away. The town of Khotan, or Houtan, as the Chinese call it, or Ilehi, as it is locally known, is the eatrepot for all the trade of Tibet, and is therefore a bustling phace. Ifere arrive wool and gold from Tibet, as well as the latter metal from mines in the neighbouring Kuen Lun, and musk, silk, and jade from other parts of the country.

When Mr. Johnson, in 1865, made a flying visit to Ilehi, he found silks, felts, carpets of silk and wool mixed, coarse woollen eloths, and praper made from mulberry-tibre the principal manufactures. The town was surrounded by a wall twenty-four feet high and twenty feet broad. Watehmen patrolled the streets at night; but as they all notified their presence by striking a stick against a hollow picee of wood, which gave forth a shrill, unmusical somnd, as a terror to evil-doers they were of limited influence. The Chinese instruments of torture were still in use, and banging and blowing away from guns were the ordinary modes of inflieting capital punishment. Gallows were erected in the city in various places, so as to be handy in case of aecident, and men and women vere daily flogged with a leathern thong.*
"Jourual of the Raynl Geagraphieal Socicty, Vol, XXXVII. (1867), p. 14. Hutton: "Central Asia" (1870.), p. 370.

Uish Turfan and Aksn are the names of two other eities. In the neighbourhood of the latter town are rieh mines of lead, copper, and sulphur. Coal is the ordinary foel among the inhabitants; and here the road to Kuldja terminates, so that in times more prosperous than the present a considerable trade was carried on aeross the Thianshan to the valley of the Ili . These six eities are the only places of importanec in the country; hence, iuleed, in eld times lastern Turkestinn was called Alty Shar, or the Six Cities. But in addition there may be mentioned, as a point of some strategie importance, the post of Serikul, or 'Iashkurgan, important in this respect, that between it and Afghanistan there intervenes only the Pamir Steppe. Now as Yakoob Beg, had unt his carcer been cat short, was evidently pushing on to the Steppe with a view to seizing Wakhan and Badakshan, he would eventually have embroiled himself with Shere Ali. But China is not an aggressive-only an intensely conservative-nation; and Afghanistan is not likely for long to come to be in a position to trouble any man outside its borders. Maralloashi, at the junction of the Kashgar and Yarkand roads, is another important post, and interesting as the ehief stronghold of the Dolans, a tribe living in wretehed subterranean dwellings, and of habits and intelligence more degraded than any other race in this region, the Bhots of Tibet, with whom they lave been compared, not excluled.*

Kucha during the Chinese occupation was a place of eonsequenee, and ran competition in wealth with Aksu, but by the latest accounts it has now sunk into insignificance, and js, indeed, little better than a mass of haif-deserted ruins. The same may be said of Korli, Kouralia, or Kouroungli, and Karashar, two towns lying to the east of it; while Trutin, through which, in old times, all the caravans proceeding east or west passed, is now desolate, and the country round it a desert. Under Yakoob's rule the country between Yarkand and Kashgar was a belt of prosperous farms not small in extent, thongh rather isulated from each other, and surrounded by orchards of plums, apples, and other fruit trees. A Kashgarian village is, indeed, a collection of farm homesteads, "presenting to the eye of a stranger rather a thinly-peopled district than a community of villagers." The system of agriculture is, however, bad. The soil is soon exhausted, and henee, even the limited amount of soil in any region is neither so fruitful nor so generally capable of bearing erops as it ought to be. Hence, each proprictor seems to have more land than he requires. But ontside of these oases the country is barren and bleak in the extreme, "The seanty-marked bridle-track that supplies the place of a highway in every direction, except where the Chinese have left permanent tokens of their pre .ee, afforls but little inducement to travellers to come thither: nor must these expeet anything but the most imperfect modes of commumication and of supply that a backward Astatie distriet can furnish. If we wish to imagine the seene along the road from Sanju to Yarkand, we have only to visit some of the wilder Sussex Wealds to have it before us in miniature. The spare dried-up herbage may be still more spare, and the limestone may be more protruding on the Central Asian plain, and the wind will certainly remind you that it comes either from the desert or from the momutain regions; but you have the same undulating, dreary expanse that you have above Crowborough. The miserable sheep, watehed by some
"A wistch of the principnl races of Central Asia is given in "Races of Mankind," Vol. HII, P1. 221-287, and Yo. IV., [1. 223-:34, etc.
nomad Kirghiz, will alone forcibly remind you that you are far away from the heights of the Sonth Downs. In the far distance yon will see the eloud-crested pinuacles of the Sanju Devan or of the Guoharbrum, and then the traveller camot but remember that he is in one of the most inaceessible regions in the world." * Yet the high-road from Kashgar to Aksu, Kucha, Korli, Karashar, and Turfan, along which all the traffic that passes or passed from China to Dzungaria, Kashgar, Kokand, and Bokhara, Mr. Boulger justly characterises as a masterpiece of enginecring akill, considering the character of the road itself and the cireumstances under which it was construeted. The heterogeneons races who have at different timss scught a home, a refuge, or wealth in Kashgar are, as a rule, frugul and tolerably honest; but the country suffers from the want of cheap and easy communications between the different parts of it, and between it and other countries-above all, India. The rivers in the country are scanty, but still they contain, especially during the spring time, when the snows are melting, water enough for ail purposes of irrigation, though they can never be utilised as highways, nor even made to do so in an indirect marmer ly filliug caluals. The elimate is, if not pleasant, heal hy enough. The peophe suffer from no prevalent disease, exeept goitre, which is common in Yarkaml and the more momntainous parts. Altogether the character of the country is such that, without neeessarily entertaining the over sanguine views that were in the early days of likoob Beg's reign held regarding its future, it is diflicult to come to any other conchusion than that, considering its matural resonrees and prisition, it ought, muder a settled government, to alvance greatly beyond any point it has attaned since the day when Alexis won the heart of Lalla Rookil.

## Kuldja.

On the other side of the Thim-shan, in the fertile valley of the River lli, shant in by lofty ranges of mountains, from which desecul cool streams to fertilise the whole region, was, up to the time of the revolt which drove the Chinese ont of Turkestan, the prosperons province of Dzungaria, a region which comprised the valley and much of the surrounding country. The capital of the provine was Kuldia, a large eity, prosperous and pleasant beyond the lot of almost any town of Central Asia. But in 1531 the Chinese fortunes stood low in Turkestin. Yakoob Beg was master of atmost the whole country, and the Tungan releels, to whom that mserupulous sollier had played the role of the man to the horse in the fable, laad, witls the Tarantelis, $t$ captured Kuldja, and during the eleven years they lad held it had all but depopulated the neighbouring country. Then in 1871 Russia stepped in, and after defeating the Tungans and Tarantehis, annexed the valley of the lli, with the distinet promise that it would be surrendered whenever the

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A KIRGIIZ mRIDE.

Chinese should again be able to maintain order in Turkestan. At that time this prospect seemed faint, and Russia, doubtless, considered Kuldja hers for ever. Indeed, as early as 1845 , soon after the foundation by Prince Gortschakoff of the military settlement of Kopal, on a fertile plateau at the base of a snow-capped monntain of the Ma-tagh range-ostensibly to protect the Kirghiz, Cossacks of the Great Horde, who had becn formally annexed to the conntry crected into the Semipalatinsk district--Russian factorics were established in Kuldja and Telaugutehak, though both of these towns were then indisputably Chinese possessions. Still later, in 1860, when the Chinese were gasping for existence in Turkestan, she gromted to Russia by treaty the whole of the great Issik-kul Lake, with the fertile country surrounding it. It was, therefore, but natural that in $18^{\prime 2}$, in order to protect her newly-acquired territory, and stop the ravages of the "rebel" hordes who bordered it, she should aunex Kuldja on the conditions mentioned. It is even said that, had not events precipitated matters otherwise, Yakoob Beg might have felt the heavy hand of the Czar. But the Chinese are a long-memoried people, and, like the exemplary beir of a spendthrift estate, were rapidly redeeming the possessions which had slipped through the fingers of the incapable or unfortunate rulers of twenty years before. Finally, Kashgar fell from the opium and bang-shattered soldiers of Yakoob Beg, and the army of General Tsao Tsung Tang appeared at the base of the 'Thian-shan, and demanded the recession of the province which had for six years been lying in pawn on the other side of that historic range. After some threats and a good deal of diplomacy, it is understood that the province is to be re-ceded to China, on condition of her paying the cost of its oecupation and certain clains of Russian merehants on the Turkestan anthorities, in aldition to granting some of the territory and considerable privileges to the Russian traders speeified. Altogether, the bargain, if ratified, is not a bad one for the Czar, cither now or considered in its prospective advantages.

However, the country to be handed over to its old masters is one of the finest in Central Asia, a region where the riehest tracts alternate in oases with frightful sandy deserts or dried-up bels of former inland seas. Its population was at one time great. The town of New Kuldja was estimated to contain 75,000 permanent inhabitants, and every year thousands of nomads and merchants from all parts of Asia arrived to attend its famous markets. But since 1860 everything has been in such disorder that the census usually given in the Russian statistieal tables must be received as merely approximate. Before the insurreetion the population of the provinceTarantchis, Tungans, or Dungan (p. 96), Chinese, Sibos, Kalmuks (p. 96), Kirghiz and Torgots-was $350, \mathrm{C} 00$. In 1871 the number was estimated at 114,337 , but later statistics put it at 500,000 , seattered over $28,0 \times 0$ square milcs of territory. As the population bas gradually increased under Russian rule, the latter census may perhaps be tolerably correct.

Kuldja is, in reality, the centre of Asia, and with the surrounding distriets of the ancient kingdom of Drungaria, extinguished by the Chinese in the eighteenth century, is considered by M. Semenoff, an eminent Russian geographer, who direeted one of these notorious "scientific expeditions" (mainly consisting of Cossack cavalry), as the point from whieh, from time immemorial, numerous races have migrated to the low and arid steppes
of the
of the Aralo-Caspian depression, and the still more distant and better-finvoured regions of the West. IIere, and on the fertile and smiling banks of the Ili and Irtish, the migrating hordes liugered for a time, loth, as it were, to venture out into the unknown $p^{\text {lain }}$ before them, stretching far away into sandy deserts that separate Europe from Asia, until a new tide of popular migration forced them at last to strike their tents, and depart westward from their mountainous haltingr-grounds.*

There were two towns of the name of Kuldja, about twenty-five miles apart. Old or Tartar Kuldja, which has for nine years been the head-quarters of the Russian administration of the province of Ili, is, however, the only one now in existenee, for the other, IIoi-yuan-tehen, New or Mantehu Kuldja, which was a flourishing city of about 75,000 inhabitants until the date of the Mohammedan rising in 1855, was, as noticed, taken by the "rebels," the whole population put to the sword, and the city reduced to ashes. $\dagger$ The place has not been rebuilt, and presents an appearance dismal in the extreme. Many buildings, especially the official residences, have been utterly razel to the ground, and in places the carth is white with fragments of human bones; while, at the date of Dr. Schuyler's visit, skulls, and even whole skeletons, could be seen in every direction. Only a few Tungan familics lived anong the ruins of Buddhist temples with their broken idols; and the palace of the governor, with the limiting wall, beyond which no man was allowed to pass under pain of death, still stood, as if in mockery of the fate that befell it. Past all flows the Ili, as of old; but instead of being covered with boats, as in the palmy days of Kuldja, it is now silent and lifeless. "The ground is aecursed," remarked one of the rebel leaders; "no one will live here again." For tivo years the Thugan sud Tarantehi army sat before the town. At last it was taken. In the morning there were 75,000 people within its walls: by night not a soul was left alive. Many were butchered at once; some killed their families and then themselves; and many ran to the steppes, only to be cut down there or to die in a few days from starvation. Everything in the city worth plundering and portable has been carried away; even the beams of the houses have been torn out to serve either as firewood or as material for new constructions. But it is believed that there is still buried among the ruins much treasure, a belief justified by the faet that in the governor's palace eighty thousand ounces of silver were found.

Then, after slaughtering the inhabitants of other towns in the valley, or subjecting them to heavy ransom, the Tungans and Tarantchis, as might have been expected, set to quarrelling amono themselves, and fougit several battles, until the Russians interfered and settled matters by oeeoming masters. Everywhere through the valley are still traces of the ravages of these fiendish hordes, who ought nueh sooner to have been erushed by the nearest civilised power: dried-up canals, abandoned fields, withered forests, and "every few miles dismantled and ruined eities, which but ten years before had sheltered a civilised and hard-working population." The industry and taste of the Chinese were, inter aliu, displayed in the planting and maintenance by constant irrigation of artificial forests; but after the Huns of Central Asia were allowed to displace civilisation by savagery these

[^31]trees perished from drought. Alimtu, Bayandai, Tchimpantri, \&e., are all ruined places, the surrounding fiekls deserted and choked with weeds; but Tehin-tcha-ho-dzi was left unharmed, beng chiefly inhabited by Mobammedans; it has the unmistakable "pungent odour which hangs about boxes and pareels brought unopened irom China and Japan." Suidun is another Chinese-Russian town, over his visit to which Dr. S. huyler grows almost enthusiastic. Instead of the narrow, crooked streets of Tashkend, in five days he had arrived at a town with


TUNGANS AND KALMLKS OF KCLDJA.
broad, straight avenues shaded with trees, and bordered with buildings of brick, beautifully carved and moulded, roofed with tiles, and with latticed windows and porticoes. Instead of dowdy-figured women swathed in long, shapeless dressing-gowns, and faces hidden by black horsehair veils, "there were stout, healthy, and smiling women chatting over their marketing, the bright, orange-coleured marigolds in their wonderful coiffures, or their coquettish little caps, contrasting well with the indigo blue of their gowns. stead of Sarts and Uzbeks in gowns and turbans, there were Chinese and Tungans in wadded petticoats, short jackets, long moustaches, and pigtails." The town itself is square in outline, and strongly protected by a wall and battlements, and is capable of standing a

determined on a large with the of clay, w bazaars ar in the wa long ago or Governc
other word the Russia buildings of $\mathrm{Dr}_{\mathrm{r}} . \mathrm{Sc}$ fully one-1

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* In ad
descriptions
1866, pp. 88
determined siege. The present town of Kuldja is very much like Suidun, but it is built on a larger and grander seale; and at a glance one sees that the place is a Tartar town, with the Chinese polish and civilisation very thinly laid on. All the houses are built of elay, with flat roofs, like the buildings in the Uzbek countries of Central Asia. The lazaars are not of great interest, and the visitor who expects to pick up anything precious in the way of porcelain and "curios" will be disappointed, for everything of value has long ago been bought by the Russians, so that a fresh arrival has to resort to the Aksakal, or Governor, in order to find out what private individuals have still anything to sell; or, in


A "tartar" of kthida.
other words, has to resort to something very like force. In the town itself, or its suburbs, the Russians have established paper, vermieelli, and other manufactories; but the principal buildings are the mosqnes (p. 100) and a Buddhist temple. Altogether, at the date of Dr. Schuyler's visit in 1873, the population of the city was alout 10,000 , of whom fully one-half were Tarantehis.*

The Ili, or Eelee-a name which is also sometimes given to Kuldja, the chief town on its right bank-is a large river which, after flowing 300 miles through the Kuldja country from the snows of the Thian-shan, falls into Lake balkash. The vale

[^32]throngh which it runs is 100 miles in breadth, and averages over 1,000 feet above the sea. The bauks are low, and though the river is, at Kaldja, more than a mile broad, the carrent flows with great rapidity. In the upper part of its course it is surromuded by the wild and magnificent seenery of the Thian-shan and its spars, but in its middle part it passes between endless fields of gruin aud other crops, and amid groves of peach, apple, and pear trees. Near its banks stood the old eapital of the Chagatai Empire, and the very name of this onee important eity of Ghenghiz Khan mud his descendants (Almalik) signifies " $a$ grove of apple trees." Apple orchards, it may be remarked, are the most common feature of the comntry. Fort Vernöe, an important Russian post and rising town, forty-seven miles to the south of the ford over the Ili, at the base of the Trans-Itian Ala-tagh, and nearly 2,000 feet above the sea, is surrounded with natural crelards of apple and apricot trees bearing exeellent fruit, and the mountuins in the vicinity are clothed with abundant pine and other timber. Again, Tashkend, much further to the west, is in the centre of cotton fiells, and here rice and wheat are also grown, though tho latter has also to be brought from the Keles Valley, and the vicinity of Chemkend. Mulberry trees are common and vines are abundant, but the fig tree grows only in favoured spots, and probably finds its nerthern limit in the TrausChu district, in the neighbourhood of Cashkend, where the fruit in the middle of September is not quite ripe but extremely sweet. Gardens surround nearly every house, and between these are fields of lucern and corn, cotton, sesame, and the zedoary tubers, used so extensively throughout India and High Asia as perfumes and aromatic tonies. In the lli valley there were planted, after the fall of the Dzungarian Kingdom, numerous Chinese settlements, each embosomed among lofty trees; for the artificial cultivation of timber is possible even in so dry a climate as that of Central Asia, and wherever the industrious Chinese come there he makes a garden. Vines and pomegranates require to be sheltered in winter, but bear fruit lavishly, whilst everywhere plums, apricots, pears, and apples flourish with great luxuriance. Rice and maize are also among tbe Kuldja crops, and melons are so large that even the Californian, could he see them, would be foreed to acknowledge that something in the encurbitaceous line ean be grown out of the Sacramento Valley. Dr. Schuyler, indeed, considers it the richest part of Central Asia, and about the only part acquired or occupied by the Russians which will ever repay the labour speit over it. The soil we have seen is fertile, and will yield abundant crops. The mountains abound in iron and copper, and good coal is found within fifteen miles of the city of Kuldja, and sold at from 5s. to 8 s . per ton. Beef and mutton cost $1 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~d}$. to 2 d . per lb ., and a fowl can be bought for 2 d . Flour is 7 d . per pud of 36 lb ., maize and wheat half that priee, and rice and other grain are less, though prices have doubled and even trebled since the advent of the Russians. But at present the trade of the province is unimportant: even in the Chinese times, neither the imports nor the exports reached, according to Dr. Schuyler's information, $£ 30,000$ per annum.

For the last 165 miles of its course the Ili passes through a sterile, sandy steppe, and debouches into Lake Balkash (about 780 feet above the sea), through a delta covered with thickets of reeds seventeen feet high, and almost impenetrable, except to the boars, tigors, and other animals which haunt such places all along the
shores of a gl at high on acco D>0 mil matter valley trurible of pine, sparrows Mountai Kirglizı bird. 'T
is comm or eatir but in the grea mulberty
shores of this lake, which, with the two Ala-Kuls,* appears to be the last remnant of a great dried-up inland sea. The river from Old Kuldja to New Kuldja is navigable at high water for about two and half months in the year, and thon with great difficulty, on aecount of the shoals and gravelly banks. From New Kuldja to the lli station250 miles-it is praeticably navigable at all times of the year, and easily at high wnter. Finally, the section from the last-named point to Lake Balkash is easily navigable, but the trade has not yet sufficiently developed to make the utilisation of the stream a matter of much importance. In the mountains, which the traveller through the lis valley never loses sight of, and the occasional cool breezes from which relieve the terrible summer heats, wild goats, deer, hares, and other animals sport among the woods of pine, poplars, willows, birehes, and wild olives. Curionsly enough, the dark brown seasparrows of the Kurile and Aleutian Islands (Cinclus Pallasii) are found on the Karabura Mountains; while on the southern slope of the same mountains, as well as in the Kirghiznin-Alatau, is alone found the white-bellied variety (C. leucogaster) of the same bird. The ullar, a partridge (Megaloperdrix nigellii) weighing from ten to fifteen pounds, is common; but the red-legged partridge of the Chu and Syr Daria Mountains is rare, or entirely absent from the Kuldja Mountains. Silk-weaving is not common in Kuldja, but in the valley of the Syr Daria and on all the sonthern afluents it is one of the great industries of the settled population, as is also the business of rearing the mulberry and the silkworm. It might, perhaps, be extended here also.

Trade has been so disorganised of late that it would be difficult to say exactly of what it at present consists, and under the Chinese régine will no doubt be entirely revolutionised, in spite of the clause in the new treaty which stipulates that Russians are to have free commercial intercourse with the Chinese provinces. Felt, silk, bang, wool, gold, silver, cotton, may be looked upon as among the exports of the surroundiug region; while opium, spices, sugar, tea, linen cloths, kinkal, broadeloth, Kashmir shawls, leather, firearms, indigo, brass utensils, prints and calicoes, iron, silk, caps, cochineal, porcelain, eutlery, tobaceo, snuff, padlocks, \&e., are among the artieles that the wild Kirghiz and other tribesmen mostly buy. But British trade with these provinces must now be looked upon as a forgotten dream, whether Slav or Mongol is to rule it.

The soil of some parts of Central Asia is extremely fertile. In the valley of the Arys wheat produces thirty-fold; lucern, after three cuttings, grows up nearly three feet high, and is prevented from bending down by its density, the stalks supporting each other, the outer ones alone bending down to the ground." $\dagger$ The Sorghum millet and other crops are equally rank; for though the winter is extremely cold, the summer is correspondingly hot, and the facilities of irrigation in many of the drier parts of the country are great. The scenery near the shores of Issik Kul-I20 miles long, 33 broad, ani elevated 4,900 feet above the sea-is said to be very beantiful; while the peaks, covered with eternal snow, the torrents, and the wild rocks, add to the charm of the still more attractive country immediately along the banks of the lake. The deep, blne, brackish waters of the lake, though full of fish which are never caught,

[^33]are solitary tnough now; but it is known that once on a time cities of considerable magnitude existed along its desolate shores. To this day the strand is strewn with

a tarantchi mosque at kulidja.
skulls and bones, evidently of Kirghiz, the remnants, possiliy, not of some "great battle in the west," as the natives tell, but of washed-away cemeteries in the near vicinity. Under the elear waters of the lake, it is said, ruins can yet be seen of submerged towns; and it is certain that in digging in the neighbouring eountry brick walls,
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sculptured stones, and inseriptions in an unknown alphabet have been fomul. Indeed, the stution-honses nemr the lake aro often paved with diamond-shaped tiles, some plain, others covered with a bhe glaze, which had been found in the lake, and by the peasants while plonghing their fields in its vieinity.

Owing to the uncertain tenure of the lussian oeenpation of Kullja, they have not permitted the valley to be colonised by their own people; mad it is, iudeed, doubtinl whether the shiftless Monjik would be able to make as much out of the valley us did the Chinese, with their industrious habits und careful system of agrieulture. The people in the vicinity of Kuldju are mostly latantchis, and with a few exeeptions are agrieulturists. The valleys of the rivers Kunges und Kash, which are prolongations of the valley of the Ili to the east, nre inhabited by the Torgots and Kuhnuks (pp. 96, 97), remnants of the old Daungarians, and descendauts of the Kalmuk tribes who at the beginuing of last century returued from the Lower Volga. Much of these valleys consists of salt-pools and districts destitute of water. But about one-half is fitted for agriculture, and in the middle and upper part is possessed of abundance of water, pastures, meadows, and even forests. In the upper part of the valley, and in the monntains, there are reputed to be many kinds of trees-pophar, apple, aprieot, elm, fir, birch, mountain-ash, \&e.-but the lower part of the valley is waterless and salt. The Russians have not yet surrendered the provinee; and looking at the question entirely apart from politieal considerations, it is questionable whether, in the interests of the wretehed inhabitants-Clinese and Tungan-they ought to leave them to the mercilessness of the fieree Tarantchis, unless the Chinese provide an army strong enough to keep order. Sueh fearful massacres as were pernetrated at the time of the insurrection caunot be permitted to be repeated. But so littlo confidence have the few Chinese now remaining in Kuldja in the power of the "Khitay" to protect them, that they make no seeret of their intention to leave the moment the Russians withdraw.

## Tibet.

The resident in the northern parts of India finds his view all along that frontier of the empire bounded by a giant range of mountains, the Himalayas. At least, so the maps represent it. In reality these mountains are more properly a mountainous country, wide in extent, and "often eonsisting of high parallel ranges divided by great rivers (both ranges and rivers running longitudinally in the same direetion of the entire chain)," and finally reaching " a high barren plateau, supported on the outer ranges as on a series of walls." This high platean is Tibet, Thibet, or Tubet, Bod, Bot, or Bodyul-the land of Bol-of the matives, and one of the suljeect conntries of China. With the north-eastern part of the country we are still only slightly aequainted, but from what is known of it the area of Tibet is roughly estimated to be from 600,000 to 800,000 miles, and the population at 6,000,000. The most part of this area is enelosed in the angle between the Ilindoo Koosh, Pamir ILighlands, the elain of the Kuen-lun Motutains, and the great range of the Himalayas; but though usially designated a platenn, in reality it is a "talle with the legrs turned up." In other words, it is traversed by several mountain ranges
which near its western and eastern frontiers iuterlace in so complieated a manner as to deprive the table-land of any likeness to the upland plain usually so designated. The average elevation of the southern portion is 13,500 feet, though in places it rises to the height of 16,000 feet; but in the north and east it is believed that the tract of country descends to mueh lower levels. The great Himalayas, twenty summits of which are higher than the loftiest of the Andes, and which we shall by-and-ly have something to say about when we cross the ranges on onr way out of India, are only connected with the platean by ridges of lesser elevation, which, to use the simile of a geographer, "project from the highlands like buttresses which rise higher than the walls which they support." The Tibetan table-laud stretehes away enstward towards the frontier of China proper, but it can only be approached from India through monntain gorges cut out by torrents, and of the wildest and most pieturesque gramdenr. The four provinces of Tibet are usually divided between the castern and western divisions of the country, the first region being drained by the Sanpoo,* which lower down is successively known by the more familiar names of the Dehong and Brahmapootra, and the other by the Indus. Both these rivers lie close together, but they soon separate, the one running eastward and the other westward, and both finally breaking through mountains to the southward, and before they fall into the sea embracing between them the whole of northern India. "Imagine," writes Mr. Shaw, "a wall supporting behind it a terrace of gravel. Suppose the gravel terrace to be hog-backed in the middle, so that the waters rising there run away to the right and to the left till they each find a low place in the wall, and escape away through it." This is the relation which Tibet and its rivers and the Himalayan chain bear to each other. It is still a mysterious region, for the Chinese exclusiveness is there developed to a very pronounced extent; and though travellers have perseveringly endeavoured to enter it, and in many cases have partially succeeded, yet their observations have been conducted under great difficulties, and in every case have been of a very limited character. But in spite of Tibet proper not being well known, the outliers of the country are more familiar, for natives of Ladalk (pp. 101, 109)-sometimes known as Middle Tibet, though politieally a part of the Maharajah of Kashmir's territories-Zanskar, and other waifs and strays from the more accessible portion of Western Tibet, every year visit the Kangra and other Indo-Himalayan valleys. "Black tents of peculiar make appear for a few days at a time in the winter on open spaces by the roadsides, and shelter dingy families of narrow-eyed Tibetans-petty traders who come down with their wares. They are not, prepossessing in appearance, with their high cheek-bones, their dirt, and their long pigtails; but they are the most grod-tempered of mortals, and they always greet you with a grin. Moreover, every year the few English sportsmen who penetrate into the wilder parts of Ladâk bring down reports of the wonderful animals to be found there, and of the curious eustoms of the Buddhist inhabitants. Wild sheep as large as ponies, wild eattle with busly tails like horses, and long hair on their flanks reaching nearly to the ground, besides

[^34]antelopes and gazelles, are to be obtained by those who toil sufficiently; while for nonsportsmen the curious monasteries perched on almost inaccessible rocks, with their Romish ceremonial, their prayer-wheels, their gigantic images and ancient manuscripts, form the chief attraction." But long before Tibet is approached from China Tibetan tribes are met with, as, indeed, Mr. Baber noted in his recent journey. Though the country lies in a comparatively low latitude, yet its great elevation renders it in the winter almost as cold as the Aretic regions. Owing, however, to the mountains and plains which intervene between it and the sea robbing the winds of their moisture, its excessive dryness prevents either the cold being so severely felt as othervise it would be, or the country being unhealthy. Flesh exposel to the Tibetan air dries until it crumbles into powder, but it never putrefies. Wood does not rot, but it breaks from mere brittleness caused by the arid atmosphere, and a person dressed in sheepskins gives out long electric sparks when his garments approach any conducting substance. The very roeks during the winter crumble into powder, and mixing their dust with that of the dry soil, are tossed up by the high wind in blinding clouds. The air is, however, bracing after one has got acelimatised to it, while a region in which there is perpetual snow at 16,000 to 18,000 feet, and where enormous glaciers exist, must act as a sanatorium to the jaded dweller in the moist, enervating plains of India, or even in the Asiatie khanates further west. At 18,544 feet-2,800 fect higher than on Mont Blanc, and 1,279 feet above the snow-line of the Andes in Ecuador-bushes and pastures make their appearanee; and though lower down grazing land of a bare and scanty description stretches, yet cedars and birches-the only trees of the country-are only met with in a ferv very sheltered or comparatively moist places on the hills. Salt and other lakes of large size ( p .105 ) are not unfrequent, but watercourses and water generally are not characteristics of Tibet. In the plains the inhabitants are herdsmen, but in the valleys, where fruit-trees, the vine, and grain can be cultivated by aid of irrigation and the construction of terraces along the slopes, the people are for the most part agriculturists. Hence the skill and industry demanded of the Tibetan farmer have rendered him a peculiarly intelligent and hardy individual.

A nation so remote from the busy world cannot be expected to make great progress in arts or commerce; but the country is known to abound in silver, copper, and tin, though the absence of fuel renders these riches of little value. Gold mines are worked and jealously guarded by the Chinese, and the deposits of salt, borax, sulphur, and nitre are developed to a considerable extent. The produce is carried by caravans consisting of long trains of pack oxen, sheep, mules, and horses, the rivers being crossed by inflated skins. Jewellery and fabrics of wool and goats' hair, Buddhist idois, \&c., are also traded to Nepaul and Bhotan; fine broadeloths and Indian manufactures are imported in exchange. A little trade was also done with Turkestan during Yakoob Beg's time, and this will very probably increase by-and-by. With Chiua there is, however, a large traffic, the produce of Tibet being exchanged for tea, Chinese manufactures, and European cutlery.* The brick tea-trade is, however, the most important one in the country. Of late a most interesting

[^35]report on this suljeet has been given by Mr. Colburne Bater, at dhat date of his journey lritish Consul at Chung-King, in a doenment so valnable that as the origimal* is litile known we may suply a condensation of it, supplemented by some notes derived from sonrees which the anthor has not drawn upon.

To the Tibetan, Mr. Baber remarks, tea is more than a luxury, it is an absolute


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necessary ; a faet, mdeed, noted ly Horace della Pema, an old Cipuchin friar, long resident at Lhassa, who wrote in 1730:-"The Tibetans drink a quality of tea made wilh milk, hutter, and salt, and leave a littie tea in the cap, in which they make a paste with barler meal, and afterwards eat it." This statement is confirmed by Bogle, Turner, and Mamning, and other later visitors, and though they differ ns

* Gastte of India, Decer,ber, 18:9; see also additional notes in the Standard (London), Januaty 2, 1880.
to the quality and quantity of tea druuk by the Tibetans, it is undisputea that it con--titutes their principal beverage morning, noon, and night, and that most of it comes from the province of Se-chuen (p. 38). Deprived of the costly, but indispensable, stimulant, he suffers from headache, grows nervous, restless, out of condition, and altogether unhappy. In outlying distriets mothers are eareful to keep the seductive beverage from their children for fear lest they should grow up unable, on oecasion, to go without it. And yet, to European taste, the infusion, as prepared by the 'libetans, is the remotest possible imitation of tea. The Tibetan teapot is a wooden churn, much like a butter-churn, into which the boiling infusion is poured through a strainer; a little salt is added, and some twenty strokes applied with a dasher piereed with five holes. A lump of butter is then thrown in, and the compound is again churned with from 100 to 150 strokes, administered with mueh preeision and regularity. The tea is then ready for drinking. It will be remarked that, with the substitution of salt for sugar, the Tibetan preparation is of much the same composition as the tea drunk in Euglind; but the presence of the salt is not pereeptible, and Mr. Baber could detect no flavour of tea. It is impossible aceurately to describe the taste of the iufusion; but to force a comparison, it is something like weak English tea with rieh milk, but without any sugar or tea. And yet nobody would mistake it for milk and water, still less for butter and water; for the tea principle affects the flavour, while itself becoming modified into some un-tea-like astringent. It is evident that astringency is the property desired, seeing that the many thousand Tibetans who cannot afford tea use oak bark in its steal. The teacup of the Tibetan is a wooden bowl, not seldom an object of high price and elaborate workmanship cased in precious metals and enerusted with jewels. In this he allows the tea to stand for a minute or two, and when the butter floats freely on the surface, he blows it off into another bowl. The national farinaeeous food is "tsampa," flour of grilled corn. The consumer takes up a portion of this between the tips of his fingers and thumb, and opening them with a jork flieks it over the butter; then moulding it into a consisteney, he eats the immature pie-crust without further formality, washing it down with ihe tea. This is the characteristie nutriment of Tibetans. Two English pounds of butter and ten ounces of tea are considered by the latest observer a liberal, but not lavish, allowanee for twenty drinkers for one day.

Mr. T. T. Cooper, who in 1879 was murdered at Bhamo, estimated the export of tea from Se-eluen at only six million pounds aunually. Mr. Baber places it at ten millions, though the Tibetans are contented with the most inferior qualities it is possible to manuficture from the refase of the crop. The poorest Chinaman in Chung-King pays ten times as much for his tea as does the Tibetan. It is, therefore, allowable to conclude that the article sold to the latter is ten times worse, and that this fact holds out some hope for the Assam and Bengal tea merehants being able to run the Chinese out of the market by the introduction of a better quality of their favourite herb. Indeed, it is doubtful whether any really grood tea ever reaches Tibet, a supposition borne out by the observations of Mr. Manning, who in 1811 was sent by Warren Hastings on an embassy to Llassa. Yet the Tibetans are willing to pay for good tea prices of which half a rupee the pound may be taken as the minimum.

As far as Ba'tang is concerued, Mr. Baber considers that there is little prospect
of an outlet for Indian ten; but it is diffienlt to conceive how the idea of trading between Assam and that place could ever have been conceived. It possibly arose from an impression that $\mathrm{Ba}^{3}$ tang is a Chinese city, whereas it is a small Tibetan town of 200 houses, eighteen days distant from the true Chinese border, by a track which, practically elosed in winter, crosses four passes at varions elevations between It,000 and 17,000 feet, neeording to the careful and corrected observations of Captain Gill, R.E.* Moreover, when the Chinese borcier is reached at Ta-chienlu, the nearest city of any importancenamely, Yaehou-is still seven or eight days distant, and las water communication with the sea. Setting aside for the moment the Tibetan roads, the only practicable way from Assam to Ba'tang is aeross the Patkoi to Burmah, thence into Yun-nan by the Irrawaddy traek, and so northwards by Weisee, a distance of 750 miles-a two months' journey at least in such a country, whereby on arrival at Ba'tang the freight alone, calculatel at Tibetan rates, would be half as much again as the market price of Chinese tea. The most direct road would of course be through Tibetan territory; but if Tibet be opened, no purpose can be served by going to Ba'tang. "That town is a junction of high roads to Se-chuen, Yun-nan, and Lhassa, and is consequently a point of great political importance to the Chiuese Government. But its sole commereial significance worth the name, although there is a good deal of peddery, is derived from the passage through it of Yerkalo salt and Yachon tea on their way westwards." Goods-salt among others-is carried in the country on the backs of sheep, each sheep being laden with abont 25 lbs . They are very obedient to their drovers' whistles, and if any of them get out of the way, they are easily brought back by the shepherds' dogs. Assam is admirably placed for taking the tea trade in flank, and might even supply Western Tibet "without serionsly affecting the Yachou export, since the whole quantity of the latter would only suffice for the consumption of a million Tibetans. The difficulty of crossing the Himalayas may be adduced as the most obvious impediment; but if any track whatever exists-as we know it does-it cannot be moro formidable than the iey passes encountered by Abbé Hue on his journey from Lhassa to Ta-clienlu by the Chinese tea-route." The distriets where good tea would sell most casily and adrantageously are those which are furthest removed from the Chinese tea-route, or, in other words, from those which are nearest to Assam. It is superfluous to renark that the merest sweepings of the Assam "godowns" would make better tea than the Tibetans have ever drunk.

The Lhassa Government-aceording in Mr. Kinny-foree the sale of tea on their suljects by issuing a certain quality of it to the governor of each province, and debiting lim with the price of it. In orler to be no loser by the transaction, he issues a quantity to each family, aceording to their wealth and status, whether they wint it or not, and fixes the price himself. Ouly the poorest are passed over in this extruordinary method of "pushing a triale."
"It is generally assumed," Mr. Baber goes on to say, "that the olstacles to intercommunieation are of a physieal nature; but if so, there would be no trade, whereas evidences of a very extensive exchange abouml, even so far east as Ta-chienlu, in the use of rupees

* Jomranl of the Royal Geographical Society, Vol. XLVIII. (1878), p. $5 \boldsymbol{5}$, and "The River of Golden Sand" (1880).
and of many articles of Indo-European origin. To mention some of the more trivialbut on account of their triviality the more convineing-instances, the common dinner plates of the libetans, when they uso any, are of tin, stamped in the centre with an effigy of some Enopean celebrity. In those which I examinet I recognised the 'Third Nopoleon, the Prince and Princess of Wales, and Mr. (iladstone, all supposed by the natives to represent Buddahs of more or less sanctity. Romod the rim of the plate, in all cases, were stamped the letters of the linglish alphabet, from $A$ to $Z$. The most desirable buttons, again, are lonr-amm pieces, and so strong is the demand that three of these are worth a rupee. British army buttons are as common as blackberries. Even corkserews are offeref for sale in Th-chienh, although no one can exphain their use. The presence of such miscellanens and cheap articles testifies to the faeility of trade, while the great quantity of rupees proves its extent. But although commercial intercourse crosses the whole brealth of Tibetan eomentres, diplomatic relations have not yet penetrated to the nearest of them, Lhassa-dé. Yet the distance from Calentta to Lhassa, in a direct line, is less than from Paris to Berlin. Until such relations are established and maintained, there cam be no hope whatever of a 'libetan market for Assan tas. Exploring missions, no matter how well organised or amply furnished, can effeet nothing in the interest of the trade so long as the adverse influenee of the resident Chinese Legrates and of the Lamas is mehceked. No matter how short the ronte or convenient the roat, the hostility of these two parties would be ronsed to the utmost against any project of a tea trade."

Seventy years ago the 'libetan merchants told Manning that most of the articles from India which came into Tibet were smuggled by the Fakirs or pilgrims, and that if much gold was sent out of the country to India the Emperor of China would be displeased. Vet for many centuries such a trade existed, until the conquest of Nepaul by the Goorkha Rajah put a partial stop to it. The old tradition of the lndian Governor-Generals, prior to the time of Warren Hastings, was that the Chinese ought to be kept off as far as possible; but the afforts to open up a trade with Western China throngh Burmah, the exploration of the Eastern Limalaya, the development of the resources of Assam and the Mishmee tribes' country, all prove that this day of isolation is now over. Indeed, the stipulation in the Treaty of Cheefoo that a consul is to be established at Chung-King, " the Liverpool of Western China," has already been carried out by Mr. Baber (whose report we have quoted) being stationed there, and is the best proof that India is determined to draw as near as possible to her neighbours. Still, the physical obstacles of the Himalayas, thongh great, are trilling compared with the hostility of the Chinese mandarins and the jealousy of the Buddhist hierarehy of the Lamas, operating on the natural timidity of the primitive people whom they hold in civil and religious bonds. Commerce is in the hands of the Goverument, and so closely is it watched that it is next to impossible for an stranger to enter the country without encountering the garrisons that are stationed at $:^{\prime \prime}$ he inlets to it. This jealousy would be still more intensified by the commotion exeited among the Se-chnen merchants were a trade to develop between Assam and Tibet, throngh Nepaul by the Kirong Pass, through Sikkim by the Chumbi Valley, by the route beyond Sudiyeh, or over the Patkoi hills; it is doubtful whether the Pekin Government, supposing they were willing, could force these edicts on the Chetu, Ba'tang, or Lhassa mandarins, who three of

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profit by the present state of matters, or that the Lamas would care to risk any intercourse between their serfs and the more enlightened Indians. In order to make a Tibetan trade remmerative, Mr. Edgar pointed out, years ago, that it would be necessary to open up not only one but all the IImalayan passes. $U p$ to the present date we have seen mothing to render this revolntionary measure less a sine quat now for trade with Middle Asia. Colonel Lewin considers that if the flock-owners of Tibet were made aware of the fact that int the foot of the Himalayas there was a steady market for their wool, they would drive their sheep thither, and return with one products in exehange. In the same way,


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and with improved roals and open passes, large quantities of eows, sheep, goats, cheese, and butter would be brought into India from the same souree. At present the export of live stock is limited to the carrying capacity of the animals. The traders drive before them sufficient sheep, goats, or yaks to supply themselves with food on the road, and to carry the merchandise and goods whieh they bring with them. Of late years even the few ponies, which at one time were bought for sale, lave decreased in number and increased in price, so that at present coarse woollen blankets and earpets, a little sheep's wool (to the Northern and Central Himalayan districts), yaks' tails, musk, borax, and rhubarb, are the main exports from Tibet to India. A Tibetan in winter, owing to the severe cold, is "like a moving bed," so heavily is he elothed. Hence English woollens would always be in great demand. However, the Tibetans are somewhat peculiar
in regard to the colours of their garments. "They will not wear blue or black, and only persons of rank wear velvet; their favourite colours ure scarlet, purple, liver brown, and a suuff-coloured yellow. Turkey red cloths, prints, and flowered ealieoes aro in good demand. Imitations of Indian handkerchiefs and Kashmir shawls are very popular among the lower elnsses; chintzes do not seem to be worn. Cottons are not used save for linings, and as coverings for sacred pietures. Cheap silk handkerehiefs would meet with a large sale here, especially if the saered sentence, ' Om mani padmi honm,' were woven into the fabrie." 'There is a good demand for indigo and opium, and quieksilver, vermilion, and red and white lead are also imported for gilding the roofs of religious houses. Mirrors, glass, and lanterns find a ready sale, and cutlery would be in great demand were the artieles more manufactured after native models. Colonel Lewin considers that the best trade ronte would be from Darjeling to China via Tibet-this line, not only opening up Tibet, but tapping the rieh province of Se-chuen, with its $30,000,000$ inhabitants, and its silk, tea, rbubarl, musk, jade, amber, and einuabar. When railway communication has been extended up tile valley of the Brahmapootra, an even better route might be found through Assam, but for the present this line is not available. The Tibetans are a peaceful, well-edueated, and commereially well-disposed race, and as their faith-that of Buddha-is based on the equality and brotherhood of mankind, religious intoleranee does not exist as a barrier against intereommunieation with other nations. The Lamas, or governing class, have an interest in keeping up the present state of affairs. They derive a profit from the duties on imported goods and on the sale of permits to traders; while the traders do not desire to see us competing with them, as this rivalry would soon rednce their present enormous gains. The Chinese, in addition to these fears, dread that we shall oust them from their politieal pre-ominence in the country. However, as the Chefoo Convention sanetions us having intereourse with the comutry, and sending a mission thither, it is not likely that consuls will long be absent from Shigatze and Lhassa, or that trading posts sneh as the Russians have at Kiaehta, in Siberia (p. 13), will not be established on the frontier-say at Chumbi and Phaki.*

The Chinese gained a footing in Tibet so early that in the year 821 the country paid tribute to it, but it was not until the year 1720 that the whole of it came under the yoke of Pekin. Even yet the Government is to some extent under the control of the Buddhist priests, or Lamas, and exeept in seeing that their tribute is paid, the Chinese leave the people very much to themselves. But the large military foree maintained in the country is under the orders of Chinese generals, who also keep in their hands the direetion of the chief affairs of state. Captain Gill, however, notieed that in passing from China, the moment the Tibetan frontier was erossed the Mandarin's orders no longer beeame law; there, also, the Chinese officials do not issue their mandates in the peremptory manner usual elsewhere. When they wish anything they make requests, and do not even expect the Tibetans to protrude their tongues, and say, " $\mathrm{La} \mathrm{So}_{\mathrm{o}}$ " at the end of every remark, as is the custom when an inferior wishes to be partienlarly respectful to his superior. It

[^36]may be added that, though there are no diseases peculiar to the country, goiltre-as is also the ease in other parts of Central Asia-prevails to a frightful extent in the more mountainous districts. In some of these parts more than two-thirds of the population have swellings on their throats, some of enormous size.

In Tibet proper there are several towns, but the only one of marked interest is the eapital, Lhassa, where reside the Dalai-lama, or chief Buddhist priest, and the prineipal Chinese political aggents. The town is built on a level plain, 11,700 feet above the level of the sea, surrounded by mountaius, and dotted over with populous monasteries. Though this region is so elevated, it yields harvests of barley and millet, has abundant pastures, and there are clumps of trees, und even gardens, round the towns and monasteries. The city itself has a circumference of two-and-a-half miles, the central object in which is a Buddhist temple, containing images richly inlaid with gold und precious stones. The bazaars are kept by Tibetans, Kashmiri, Ladaki, and Nepaulese merchants, many of whom are Mohammedans, though Chinese merchants are common. Western Tibet was much exposed to incursions of the Turki tribes, and in the early part of the seventeenth century was annexed to the Sikh Empire of Runjeet Singh. It now forms part of the territory of the Maharajah of Kashmir.*

## CHAPTER V.

## Burmah: The Country and the Government.

In the course of our description of Tibet we have more than once touched on the banks of a river, mysterious as to its source, but familiar as to its tormination. Where it rises is not yet known, but as it flows through Independent and British Burmah, and is for hundreds of miles navigated by ships and lines of steaners, there are not many rivers of Asia better known than the Irrawaddy-the "Father of Waters," and the great drainer of Further India ( $\mathrm{pp} .113,117$ ). At one time it was believed that the Sanpoo was the upper water of this great river, but this hypothesis recent researches have completely disproved (p.102). In all likelihood, its main branches take their rise in the snow-covered Langtam range of the Himalayas; but the exact source is still a mystery, in spite of the many efforts made to solve it. $\dagger$ Its course runs pretty nearly due sonth, and though, for the reasons mentioned, it is diffieult to say exactly how long it is, roughly speaking, it may be said to flow for 1,200 miles, receiving on its way to the sea large tributaries like the Ning-thee, Mogonny,

[^37]Bhann, and Langtehnen. Between Ramgoon on the east and Bassein on the west it forms $n$ delta, sometimes partially overflowed, comprising about 10,000 square miles of forest, agriculture, and pasturo land, and traversed by an inextricable network of the river's branches. The current is magighle even at low water for large vessels as far as Ava, and steamers drawing four feet of water have no dillienlty in reaching Bhamo, 580 miles l'rom the month. In the course of its traverse the Irravady passes through British Burmah, Burmah proper, and China, so that its mouths ure under British control, und therelore the


VIEW in hege, mhitish momaih.
river, which forms the main entrance into the ancient empire of Ava, is really a British river. Burmah is interseeted by other rivers, sueh as the Kyen-dwen, Sittang, and Salween, all of whieh run towards the Indian Oeean. The latter, like the Irrawaddy, forms a huge delta at its mouth, which it overflows during the rainy season, but in its upper portion it rushes through magmifieent defiles. It is, however, owing to the frequent obstacles in its ehannel, practically useless as a highway into the interior.

Independent Burmah, Birma, or the Empire of Ava, was at one time much more extensive than it is at present. In early times the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu contended for the mastery, but by 1752 the latter had obtainel the upper hand. However, soon after, the founder of the present dynasty rose, and subduing the Peguans, incorporated
their so mutil th war whi by them claimerl the Bur British

thomegh li so farr dis: whole of t British Bn this second lying eont Burmah pr

Since Burmese w nightly st
their comintry with his own, nul his suceessors continued to extend its influence und bounds mutil the your 182:, when they enme into collision with the British, The result of the war which ensued was the imposition of a heavy fine on tho Burmese, and the surrender by them of a great part of their country, in addition to the sovervigu rights which they (laimel over Assnm nud several neighloming petty states. In $18: 5$, the insolence of the Burmese Conurt to our representative, the outrages of the people and oflicials on British seamen, and their general hustility to us, brought on a second war, which,


VIEW ON THE RIVER IRRAWADIY, HURMAI
though like the first, not altogether one continuous suecess for the British, resulted so far disastronsly to the Burmese that they lost the cities of Pegru (p. 112) and the whole of that provinee, which was accorlingly formally annexed to India, and as part of British Burmah contimes to this day an integral part of the Empire. The war had also this sccondary effect, that it deprived the Burmese of any seaports, the whole of the coastlying eountry being under our sway, only the inland or rolling hilly country being Burmah proper.

Since that date-in 1967-permission was obtained for British steamers to navigate Burmese waters; and to Bhamo, accordingly, the Irrawaddy Flotilla Company run a fortnightly steamer. The late king also showed considerable interest in the development of
the commercial resourees of his comntry, by assisting various expeditions denputched to endeavour to open up the trade with Western Chim viii Burmah. But, subsequently, the evil counsellors who have always been abuudant at Mandalay, the capital, have ubtuined the upper hand. The old king died in October, 1575; his successor, Theebaw, a young umu of twenty, afterwards indulged in such a wild orgie of drunkenness mul murder, that it was found necessary, in order to avoid complications, to withdraw the British Resident from his eourt.

The present kiugdon of Burmah, including its tributary stutes, comprises about 185,000 square miles, and a population roughly estimated at between three and four millions. In the northern part of the country the inhabitunts are chicfly Singphos, Shans, and other half-wild tribes; the eastern districts, or Shan states (p. 123), nre peopled by tribesmen who only acknowledge the Mandalay Goverument under protest; while, lopped of these quasi-independent parts, Burmah proper does not contain over 45,000 square miles, with a population of $1,200,000$, scattered over" $"$ varied surface of rolling uphund, interspersed with alluvial lasins and sudden ranges of hills," the country sloping upwarls from the coast until it reaches the snowy highlands of the north, which contribute so many of the rivers which drain the region described, and where alluvial tracts are rare.

## Products.

Take it as a whole, Independent Burmah is not so fertile as the lower-lying maritime tracts of British Burmah, but on the uplands rice of many different kinds, maize, millet, wheat, various kinds of pulse, indigo, cotton, and tobaceo flourish. But the sugar-cane, which has from time immemorial been known to the Burmese, is not much culcivated, although the climate seems particularly well suited for its growth. Most of their sugar -of a coarse, but cheap, quality-is made from the juice of the Palmyra palm, which is abundant in the country south of the capital. The tea-plant is indigenous, and is cuicinted by the wild tribes who live at a distance from Mandalay; but the hlapet, or pickled tea, which is a favourite Burman relish, seems obtained from an entirely different plant-the Elcoodendron piersicimu. Mangoes, ctanges, citrons, pine-apples, custard apples, plantaius, jacks, papayns, yams, and sweet potatoes are grown. Onions are less common, but capsicum, which, after salt, is the most common condiment in the country, is grown everywhere. The varied surface of the country yields an equally varied flora. There are but few deciducus trees, but owing to the plentiful moisture and the warmth of the atmosphere, General Fytche notices that the plains are during the greatest part of the year enamelled with a most exuberant vegetation and flowers of the brightest hues, while the mountains are elothed to their tops "with perennial foliage of endless variety, bright with the verlure of perpetual spring." It is also curious to find on the plains and on low hills extra-tropical plants, which only appear on the opposite coast, and in India generally on the mountains, and at an elevation of several thousand feet, and consequently in a much lower temperature. This cannot be attributed-as has been doneto the moisture of the slimate; for the same peculiar moisture of tropical and temperate
forms of vegetution oceurs in Upper Burmah, where the rainfall is much less, and the utmosphere drier also than in Bengnl.* All the trees found in India flourish in Burmah, and though with the loss of Pegu the Burmese were deprived of their linest forests of teak, yet fine timber trees are still abundant. Among the most praceful of these is the Amherstin nolilis, peeuliar to Pegu. It grows to a height of forty feet, and is henutiful in the extreme, its slender pendulous branches being eovered with bright green folinge, "draperied with large pea-blossomed-slaped flowers of searlet and gold, which hang down from its graeeful arches in tassels more than a yarl long." Dr. Wiallich considers that when this tree is in foliage and blossom it is ono of the most superb oljejects which ean be imagined. "It is unequatled in the flora of the East, and I presume not surpassed in magnifieence and eleganco in any part of the world." 'The fragrant gold-coloured blossom of the Champae (Michelia chnompaca), with which the Burmese and Indian women deck their hair, but the strong aromatic scent of which is disagreeable to bees, is nother favourite ornament of Burmese gardens. The Mrsinn, or Gungu, is another tree which rendily attrnets the eye of n new comer, nom though the pulm order comprises some twenty species, with the exception of the coeon-nut, the Areca (.freca catechu), and the Palinyrn (Borassus flaticllifirmis), few of them are very widely distributed.

The Buddhist sacred books are for the most part written on the leaves of the Corypha palm, while, as already noted, sugar is extrneted from the veinons sap of the Palmyra. "The mode of obtnining the sap is by erushing the young inflorescenee, and amputating the upper half; the lower is then tied to a leuf-stalk, and las an earthen pot attached to its end, which gradually fills with sap, and is removed every morning; when replaeed, a fresh slice is ent from tho wounded end of the inflorescence, an operation whieh is repeated every day until the wholo of the raceme is sliced away. In procuring the sugar exactly the same process is followed, but the inside of the receiver is powdered with lime, which prevents fermentation taking place; the juice is afterwards boiled down, and finally dried by exposure to the sun in little baskets, and in this form is sold in Burmali under the name of tan-lyet. The female tree produces three or four times as mueh sap as the male, and a good healthy one is said to furnish some thrce quarts a day, whieh is continued for about five months." Pine-apples are so plentiful that in early morning on the roads leading to Rangoon, enrts laden with them like turnips in England may be seen wending their way to market, in whieh they are sold at the rate of four for a penny, or sometimes even more eheaply. Of the plantain there are at least thirty varieties, some of which are used as a dessert fruit, and others cooked in varions ways as a vegetable. The famous durian (Vol. IV., p. 255) will not grow in Vpper Burmah, but before the annexation of Pegn the Kings of Burmaln used to have this fruit despatched to them from Martaban by borse post. In that country it is as great a favourite as in Malaysia, and its warmest friends indignantly deny that it is so notorionsly evil-udoured, except when it putrefies, ns it does very rapidly ofter being completely ripe. Bamboos of many varieties are found, and are so valuable that the Bhatons, one of the hill tribes

[^38]of India, offer worship to it as the impersonation or representative of the deity of the forest. But of all the forest products of Burmal, the teak ('Iecfonia greundis) is the most valuable, both for home use and as an article of export. There are a great number of varieties, but most probably they all belong to the same botanical species. It comes to maturity in about eighty years, when for eighty or ninety feet it will average a girth of twelve to sixteen feet. It does not grow in large clumps, but is seatterce through the forest in the proportion of about one teak-tree to four humdred other trees. In the teak forests proper the proportion is about one in thre hundred, but confined to certain localitics, where, as noted by Dr. MeClelland, it constitutes the prevailing tree for a few hundred yarrls, "sellom lor a mile continuously."* In 1875-76 the area of the tratk forests reservel by the Govermment of Pegu was 335,850 aeres, and the products of them delivered at the central depôts during that year was 16,597 tons, which realised at auction the average of t 3 l lss. per ton. In all, the total of Bricish and foreign teak exported from the Burmese was in the year mentioned 162, l64 tous. Iron-wood (lugu), Lugghyeng (Shoreu), ebony, \&c., are also obtained, and from two varieties of Dipterocurpus wood-oil is obtained. A triangular excavation is made in the bole of the tree, and on a fire being lighted therein the oil begins to flow freely into an earthen vessel placed to receive it. A single tree will yield from thirty to forty gallons in a season without injury.

Catechu is the inspissated brown juice cibtained by decoction and exaporation from the heart woml of Minususu cutechu, and is exported ia considerable guantity for the use of tamers and dyers, and n!so for the adulteration of varions articles of commerce, among others tea. The shellae :and varnish used by the Burmese in their lacquer-ware manufaeture are also obtained in these forests, and exported in small quantities.

Iron has been worked in the country from the earliest times; and as coal has been diseovered in various places, the materials for mining industry are in existence. 'Tin is worked with success, and gold, silver, bismuth, nitre, amber, jaide, galena, copper, phumbago, antimony, \&e., exist in some abmadance. Sulphuret of antimony has been worked, though without much profit; and the manufacture of salt, which was at one t.. te a considerable industry, is now partially abandonel, English salt of a better quality being imported much more cheaply. 'Ihis imported salt is brought as ballast for the rice-ships, and finds its way to Upper Burmah and into China and the Shan States viif Bhamo, and canses the Chinese in their turn to bring to Bhamo their manufactures to offer in exchange. Long before the American oil-wells were discovered "Rangoon carth oil," or petroleum, was known in commerce, and it is still utilised for burning and for the manufacture of candles from the paraffine extracted from the crude oil. The candles are used locally, but considerable quantitics of the refined petroceum is exported to Calentta and the Straits of Malacea. The wells are situated on a plateau about sixty miles beyond our fronticr, and cach yield from 250 to $1,400 \mathrm{lbs}$. daily, the estimated return from all of them being something like 12,000 tons per annum. The oil, when first taken out of the well, is of the consistence of cream, greenish in colour, and of strong, pungent, aromatio odour. The wells are private property, and, General Fytche tells us, have boen in the

[^39]possession of the same families for many years. They do not allow interlopers to dig any wells in the vicinity; and by mutual agreement no well can be sold or mortgaged except to a well-owner. The Government is supposed to exact a royalty of five per cent. on the value of the produce, but this varies in amount according to the caprice or exigencies of the reigning king. The precious stones of Burnah are chielly the ruby and sapphire, found


IDOLS ON THE BANKS OF THE RIVER HRASWADIVY, HLHMAH.
by sinking pits in a district sixty or seventy miles north-east from the capital. One of the many titlss of the King of Burmalh is "Lord of the liubies," and a fine specimen of this preeious gem is, next to the possession of a whito elephant, one of that monarch's most valued treasures. Some of the finest rubies known have been obtained within his territories; and it is believed that in the Royal Treasury there are stones far surpassing anything whieh the eyes of the outer world have as yet lighted oi. The Crown lays elaim to the produce of the sapphire mines, and all finds that exeeed the value of $£ 10$ are sent to the Treasury. It may therefore be understood that not a great number of
sapphires of that price are allowed to come before the eye of the offieials, $i t$ being deeidedly to the profit of the finder to break a large ure into two or three pieces, and thus be able to keep it for himsulf. It is said that no stcanger is ever permitted to approach the place where these mines are situaled. The Yu or jade mines are worked by private individunls, each of whom pays a licence for this privilege, and is entitled to all he mnearths. Momien, in the Chirese province of Yun-nan, used at one time to have almost a monopoly of the jade manufacture, and to this day many of the smaller articles are proluced in that eity.

Roaming through the Burmese forests are the elephant and the one and two-horned species of rhinoceros. The tiger, the leopard, the wild hog, several species of deer, and many of the more familiar animals of India, are also often met with; and in the Irrawaddy lives a species of dolphin (Orcella) corresponding to, but different from, the "soosoo" (Platanista) of the Ganges. The birds arc very numerous, and comprise, among others, the peacock and various species of ibis, pheasant, partridge, and quail. In the waters numerous forms of fish abound.* The buffalo, ox, and horse are used as beasts of burden. Elephants are reserved for the use of the king; while it is a piece of familiar knowledge to all the world that in Burmah, zs in Siam, an albino form of that pachyderm is so highly valued that it is kept at court in state befitting a prince of the blood royal. Dogs, cats, goats, and sheep are seen, but they are negleeted, and are of a poor description. The camel is unknown, and the ouly asses in the country are those brought from China.

## Government, Trade, and Industry.

The king rules as an absolute monarch, but justice is, on the whole, fairly alministered (for the East); and, contrary to the wont in such countries, women, though occupying a degraded position in Burmab, are permitted access to the courts of law in their own names. Brihery and extortion, however, prevail, as might be expeeted from the system adopted, for few Burmese officinls receive fixed salaries. The higher dig. nitaries are paid by the assignment of land or forced labour, and the lower by what they ean make in the way of bribes, perquisites, and other piekings, which make the administration of the law and the sale of "justice" so lucrative a trade in Burmah. This sy, iem is, however, not peculiar to King Theebaw's domain, but prevails to even a worse extent in nearly all the neighbouring countries. The poliee are exceedingly incompetent, the punishments eruel in the extreme, and, as many prisoners in our wars could testify, torture is a common accompaniment of prison life, and is resorted to by the gaolers, who are generally condemned criminals, and rank among the outeasts of society, in order to foree their vietims to pay fines to procure milder treatment. $\dagger$

The revenue is collected mainly by extortion; and though the mode of assessment is vexatious in the extreme, the result is in no corresponding degree luerative to the Court. Poll-taxes, taxea on agriculture, on fruit-trees, tolacen-land, on teak-forests, on

[^40]petroleun and on ed ordinary of the ki of $1: . . . n$ graling, a being for lavished i way throu considerab demand a Burmal.* connection by the wat silver whic iuletern $\cdot$ wistul per eclut. ia the comme: architecture carving and appearance buildings an but the pr: against any higher than the Burmese arts. Silk or imported They smelt cutlery-sucl hrought fron two wars wit of European it is said tha remarkahle. of th it or a vessels are oft bellows used
"For trado pp. 229-249.
† Orthodos
from tive immer courrac with their
vessels are often exeeuted with muel power. Yet the tools employed are few and rough. The
petrolenm-springs, on the fisleries, on salt-manufactories, on the eggs of the green turtle, and on edible swallows'-nests are among those commonly exacted. But, in addition, extraordinary imposts for the enrichment of favourites or to supply the exhausted exchequer of the king are frequently resorted to, and cannot be detailed in any systematic schedule of $\mathrm{I}:-$ ase taxation. The civilisation of the country is really stationary, if not retrograding, and little money is spent on public works, the main extravagauce in that direction being for the repair of the Buddhist temples, on one of which more than $£ 40,000$ was lavished in the way of grilding and general decoration. The Burmese commerce finds its way through British Burmah to the sea, and cousists of the articles mentioned; but a considerable amount of goods pass overland to China, the Ava cotton being in special demand among the Celestials, while, on the other hand, the Clinese silk is valued in Burmah.* But in the northern part of Burmah most of the trade is carried on at fairs in counection with the religious festivals. All commeree in Burmah is, however, much impeled ly the want of a proper circulating medium. There is no coined money, and the pieces of silver which are used in lieu thereof are so frequently ailoyed, and in all cases of such indetern whe weight, that much trouble and expense are continually incurred in getting them wishel .i. assayed. For small payments lead is employed. Money brings from 25 to 60 per cent. iater:st, aecording to the chacacter of the security for its repayment; and altogether the commercial state of the kinguom is very low. The people excel in several arts. Their architecture bears the impress of India, and is chiefly practised in wood, though the elaborate carving and the rich gilding, which are carried to an extraordinary extent, give the houses an appearance of splendour out of all proportion to their rather flimsy charaeter. The finest buildings are those devoted to religious purposes, and of these there is a prodigious aumber; but the private erections are usually not very imposing, owing to the people's prejudices against any one walking over their heads preventing the architect from rearing his bandiwork higher than one storey. Cotton is woven on a rude loom; and though the fabric is durable, the Burmese women have never yet attained to the skill of their Indian sisters in the textile arts. Silk cloth is manufactured from raw material, either raised within their own borders or imported from Chian, from which country most of the porceiain used in Burmah comes. They smelt irou, ber wot ing able themselves to prepare steel, the few common articles of cutlery-such as $\quad n, s_{i}$ ars, knives, carpenters' tools, \&c.-made by them are of metal brought from Benga. The late king, conceiving that the Burmese defeats during the two wars with the Britisu rece owing to the want of cannon on his part, brought all manner of European and cther adventurers to his capital to cast these letlal weapons for him ; and it is said that the number and variety of inefficient artillery possessed by his successor are remarkable. But it is in the jewellery art that Burmese skill is chiefly displayed. Many of th it or aments of repousse gold and silver are very tastefal, and their cups and similar bellows used by jewellers and workers in metals other than gold and silver General Fytche

[^41] pp. 229-249.
$\dagger$ Orthodos Budubith, fica their horror of destroying life, lock upon sericulture with abhorrence. Hence from tine immemorial those practising it have resided in villages by themselves-outcats, holding little intercoursc with their neigbbours.
deseribes as consisting of a couple of wooden eylinders, their diameter heing proportioned to the force required. 'These eylinders are fitted with pistons, alternately "raised and depressed by one or two men, and the air, foreed out at an aperture in the lower end of the apparatus, is conducted into the fire ly an iron tube." By means of these simple bellows they are enabled to melt the hardest metals. Ivory and wood-carving is also executed in clear and bold a!to relicro, and in most artistic designs; yct the sister art of painting is in Burmah at a very low ebh. Bell-casting is an art which the Burmese take a great pride in, and in which they have accordingly attained a considerable degree of perfection. In 1796 the largest bell in the world, with the exception of the one presented by the Empress Ame to the Moscow Cathedral, was cast at Mengeon. Their gongs are also excellent, and possess a much finer and deeper tone than those made by the Chincse. The Burmese, though not artists in the proper sense of the term, have a keener sense of the harmonies of colour and design thay most of the neighbouring natives, and on their best laequerel ware-made of fine cane ail ... hoo-work, covered with a red and yellow and black or yellow lacquer-fanciful and su as elegant designs are traced.

## Cities, etc.

Mandalay, the present capital of Burmah, is a city only twenty years old, and is laid out in a square, each side of which is a little over a mile in length, and is entirely enelosed by a erenelated brick wall 26 feet high and 3 feet thick, as well as by strong carthworks, and by buttresses protruding from the wall, at intervals of about 200 feet. The walls are pierced by twelve gites, each surmounted by a pavilion, or notel, with double or triple roofs, and 60 feet from the wall a deep moat, 100 fest in width, has been dug, and is always kept full of water. 'The moat is crossed by four bridges, but being made of wood, and casily raised at the apprach of an enemy, there is no provision made for their protection execpt from the wall. In round numbers the houses inside and outside the walls will be about 12,000 , and the inhabitants about 65,000 . The king's palace is the centre of the city, and is strongly protected by hrick walls and a teak stockade. In the eity there is always a considerable garrison. But the Burmese army, though much improved as a fighting machine since the time we last encountered it, is still very contemptible. There is-as among the Easterns, and especially among the Mongols-no distinction between the civil and military services. "Treasurers and judges are expeeted to take the command of armies. The Burmese army comprises the whole population of adult males, or rather, as much of the population as can be brought together by a forced conseription. Sometimes they are colleeted from particular provinces, townships, or distriets, but on great oceasions levies are made of the whole population. The officials then become generals. Such an army is a mere rabble. It is without any discipline or military virtuc, It is formidable only to the petty tribes and natives in the neighbourhood. The present [late] king has oceasis rally employed Europeans to drill his army, but a very small amount of suceess has hitherto attended his efforts in this direction." Ava was for a long time the capital of the Empire, and gave its name to the country, Ava being formerly much more familar as the designation of the region we are now deseribing than Burmab.

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But for many years past it has been almost deserted. Pagan must in earlier times also have been a fine city, but at present consists almost solely of a vast area of ruined temples, chielly of the eruciform vanked type.* There are several other cities, but none of them -with the exception of Phamo-are of much importance, the chief towns having always, in molern times, at least, been on the sea-coast, and therefore now under British rule. The Burmese capital has been often changed. The first mentioned in Burmese history is


View of bassac, laos.
Tagoung, founded 500 years b.c. Afterwards the seat of government was at Prome, two towns of the name of Pagan, Panya, Tsagain, Ava, Toungoo, Pegn, Amarapura, aud other cities, and once it even threatened to be in at Arakan. $\dagger$

## Climate and Diseases.

As these two questions more nearly eoneern the Luropean temporarily or for a length of time requiring to reside in Burmal, we may devote the last of our notes on the

[^42]eomutry to them. On the coast there are only two seasons, the wet and the dry. The former depends on the prevalenee of the north-east and the latter on the south-west monsoon. In Burmah proper-this is, in the upper or independent country-no rain falls, and there are three seasons, the hot, cold, and rainy. In May or June there are showers, but it is not until the autumn that the heavy rains come. Then from the middle of October till early in April the weather is cool. 'Ihe interval, however, between April and Augnst is hot-the thermometer often rises to $85^{\circ}$, and even $100^{\circ}$-rarely above the latter limit, but just as rarely falling below the former. Liven the coast region (British Burmah) General Fytehe considers, taking it all the year round, to be much cooler than Bengal. The sonth-west monsoon sets in earlier, and hence the intense heat which immedia ly precedes the commeneement of the rains is shorter. A sultry night is a rarity, and in the lower portion of the provinces, owing to their proximity to the sea, there is generally a breeze. Even further inland the natural formation of the country in valleys enables the residents to benefit by these winds. When the rain does fall it pours with no niggard downfall. In 1870, at the sea-coast town of Manlmain, 181.6 inches fell- $59 \cdot 2$ inches in the month of August. On the 27 th May, 1857, $12 \cdot 97$ inehes were recorded. "The rain deseends from the land skies," writes the late Chief Commissioner of Burmah, "in dense sheets, aceompanied with vivid lightuing and crashing peals of thunder, and during the paroxysm of the monsoon has an appearance as if Heaven in its justice had deemed fit to immerse in a second cataclysm an impenitent world." In Upper Burmah dronght is sometimes experienced, but happily famines, such as are too familiar to many parts of India, are unknown. Those which have oecurred are aseribed more to devastating wars and politieal causes thas to soil and elimate. Snow, it is almost needless to say, is muknown, but at the commencement of the south-west monsoon storms of hail are not unfrequent. On the ligher ranges of mountains frost is, however, experiencel during the middle of the north-east monsoon. The elimate, though trying, lin all parts of the tropies, is not particularly dangerous. The regiments stationed both on the coist and on the frontier enjoy excellent health. The complaints most prevalent are fever, dysentery, and liver diseases, maladies from which the matives themselves are not free, though their sturdy and vigorous appearanee proves that Burmah is not a land of pestilence. From a sanitary point of view, the soldiers' worst enemy in this, as in other parts of the Jast, is the fatal facility for indulging in insobriety. "It's a fine country; lots to drink, and you are always dry," was the encomium passed on it by Private Thomas Atkins.*

## The Silan States.

Between Mmmipoor on the east and Yun-nan on the west, south of lat. $24^{\circ}$, to the borders of Siam and Cambodia, are a number of wild tribes, who, thongh owing allegiance

[^43]either term
cither to Burmah or Siam, are really independent. They are known as the Shan States, a term which includes much of the Laos country, partially under the anthority of tho King of Anam. Xieng Mai, the capital of Laos, is sadd to contain 50,000 inlabitants. It stands on a plaia on the right bank of the Menam, 500 miles north of Bangkok, the capital of Siam. The other villages and towns (pp. 1:2, 121) are mimportant. The Karens also inhabit a mountainous country, partially independent. Western Karennee has asked to be annexed to British Burmah, owing to the assumption of authority on the part of the Burmese over it; but for the present the people are independent.*

## Britisi Bermaif.

The way this province of India was aequired has already been explained; and as it is geographically and essentially a portion of Burmah, though one of the "Commissionerships" under the Indian Viceroy, it may be more conveniently noticed here than further on. The part of the country intersected by the mouth of the Irrawaddy is flat, but the south, east, and part of the north is more or less mountainous, some portions of the country being, indeel, so rugged as to render cultivation impossible. Tenasserim-one of the three divisions, Arakan and Pegu being the other two-is divided from Siam by a high range of hills. Blue Mountain, one of the peaks on the northern frontier of the province, rises to a height of 7,000 feet, and some of the other elevations throughout the country are not much less. For instance, the mountains of Tenasserim are about 5,000 feet high, and throughont their extent are covered with dense jungle, in which live no human beings. Indeed, a large part of the country is clothed with forest containing the teak and other timber-trees, which constitute a great portion of the riches of the comitry. Rivers also intersect it everywhere, some of them navigable for considerable distances; but the population is small compared with the extent and capabilities of the country. In the year 1872 their number was placed at $2,747,148$, scattered over an area comprising something like 88,500 square miles. The great majority of these are Budillists, the remainder being Mohammedans, Hindoos, Christians, and Pagans of various types. The province contained several towns, but only two of them have a population exceeding 10,000, Rangoon, the capital, containing, in 1872 , over 98,000 people, though at the date of writing this census is believed to greatly under-estimate the number of inhabitants of the principal seaport of Burmah. $\dagger$ Under the British Government the country has rapidly inereased in population, and its prosperity has been so great that no other province of Iudia can compare with it. This is the best proof that our rule has been to the benefit of the natives. This they themselves acknowledge, though a few disaffected individuals in Rangoon and elsewhere, aeting, it is believed, as the tools of the vain, ignorant courtiers at Mandalay, sometimes exhibit signs of desiring to disturb the peace. This, however, is not likely to be broken by any large number of the people. They know well that under the King of Burmah they enjoyed no such privileges, or an

[^44]approach to the comfurt and freedom they now possess. Under their own rulers they were oppressed by rapacious vieeroys, whose only thought was to fill their cofters. Torture was resorted to in nll judieial diflieulties, but, except in cases of trenson or snerilege, money could expiate even an offence so serions that not only the netual criminal but all his relations would bave been made to shure in the punishment. No man dared to grow rich, knowing that his poverty was lis main safeguard from oppression and robbery. Thus in time trade languished, and industry was limited simply to provide for the worker's daily wants. So sensible aro the Burmese of the difference between British and native rule that, in spite of the almost sacred regard they pay to their monareh and their country, they have migrated in large numbers aeross the frontier, so as to be under our protection.

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The example of the British administration has even had an effect on the king himself. At one time all officials, court favourites, and dependents were paid either by grants of revenue, or of land, or of the labour of the people living on these lands. Now some of the chicf ministers and inmates of the zenana are paid fixed salaries, a reform which has, however, made the king more absolute than ever, and not much improved the condition of his subjects. Indeed, to improve the subject's condition is not an idea which often crosses the mind of a Burmese monarch. The first great principle on which his throne rests is that the people are his property, and as such he is entitled to their labour. Land is in Burmah so plentiful that it has never been looked upon as pr perty in itself, the cultivator's labour being the valualle commodity. He sits on the soil as the ehattel of the king, and his business is to raise produce for him, the balance remaining after the Government officials have taken their shares being considered a kind of gratuity on the sovereign's part to his lieges.

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In this way the revenue of the king is ealculated to reath over $£ 500,000$, in addition to various peryuisites and exactions, the value of which it is impossible to exactly calculate. Slavery also exists. Some of the slaves are herelitary bondmen, such as those allotted to serve in the pagodas; and others are debtors, who serve until they pay the uttermost farthing. But there are whole villages of outcasts, who live apart from the rest of the world, and with whom few people will hold much intereourse, whose lot is almost as bal. Lepers, deformed and mutilated people, all ineurables, executioners, collin-makers, and others employed in the disposal of the dead are classed as such.

The productions of British Burmah consist of rice, cotton, tobaeco, teak, and the articles alrealy noticed in our aecount of Burmah proper; and in addition, the enterprise of the English manufacturer has resulted in the establishment of several riee-husking and sawmills throughont the provinee, in addition to various others for the manufacture of silk and cotton goods. Edueation on the English plan has not made much progress, but there is attached to the Buddhist monasteries numerous, cheap, and fairly efficient schools of a kind; while Christianity, if rejected by the Buddhists, is, through the exertion of the American missionaries, making beadway among the wild Karens. The province is governed by a Chief Commissioner stationed at Rangoon, who is assisted by a number of deputies and other officials. Altogether the country is in a flourishing condition, and may be looked upon as one of the portions of India which not only pays the cost of governing, but actually yields a surplus for imperial purposes. This surplus amounted in 1875-6-a fair average year-to $£ 1,112,019$. Rangoon, the eapital, lies twenty-six miles up the Rangoon River, and at the height of the rice season is a busy place, owing to the presence of so many foreign ships taking in cargo. The town runs for about a mile along the river-bank, and above three miles iuland. The principal thoroughfare, and the one in which are the Government offices and the most imposing shops and dwelling-houses, is "The Strand," a broad maeadamised esplanade running along the river-side. The town from the river presents a pleasaut aspect. Its teak and bamboo houses are shadel with thick tropical vegetation; while the Euglish cantomment, the two or three European churches, and "several large pagodis with gilded riehly-ornamented spires," give a semi-Oriental, semi-British aspeet to this town of the far East. "Beyond the eity," writes Mr. Vincent, "we see a jungle of palms and bananas and bamboos stretching away, a wavy sea of green, to the very horizon itself." Though the country round the city is of the usual nature of the delta of the Irrawadly (p. 113)-low, sandy, and muddy, and subject to tremendons floods in the rainy season-it is not unhealthy. The town itself is laid down in streets-mostly broad, macadamised, and clean-running at right angles to eael other; and the European houses are in the majority of eases raised on piles, and built of plain teak boards with tile roofs. The native town or quarter Mr. Vincent, however, considers "very mean-looking, the huts there being of bamboo with palm-leaf-thatehed covers." Maulmain is a town of about 10,000 people-Burmese, Chinese, Parsees, Armenians, Klings, Jews, Singhalese, and about a couple of hundred Europeans-almost hidden amid immense groves of cocoa-nut, palm, betel-uut, banama, papaya, bamboo, and other tropical vegetation. Timber is the great trade of the place. The teak-logs are hewn in the forests on the banks of the Salween River, and then, after being seasoned, floated down, sometimes for bundreds of
miles, to the town. A teuk-log is not a light weight anywhere; in a tropical climate to handle it is a burden too great for men to bear. Accordingly, elephants are extensively employed in this oceupation-hrawing, stacking, and shifting the immense blocks of woonl, some of which weigh two tons. "A log," we are told by Mr. Vincent, "that forty coolies could searcely move an elephant will quietly lift upon his tusks, und holding it there with his proboseis, will carry it to whatever part of the yurd he may be direeted by his driver. They will also, using trunk, feet, and tusks, put the huge timber as evenly and correetly as one could wish. What surprised us most was to see the elephants seleet and pick out particular timbers from the centre of an indiseriminate stack or heap of more than a hundred simply at the command of the driver. The huge beasts are direeted by the 'mahouts,' or drivers, by spoken orders, pressure of the feet on their neeks, and the customary use of the 'ankus,' or elephant goad. It usually requires a year or a year and a half to teach them the 'timber business,' and when thoroughly taught they are worth from 500 rupees [ $£ 50$ ] upwards, according to their abilities. We saw one, a venerable old fellow, nearly ten feet in height, for which the owner said he had refused an offer of 3,000 rupees. Sometimes an animal breaks his tusks, being forced to carry an excessive weight by a stupid or brutal driver, though the elephant knows his own power, and generally refuses to lift more than his tasks ean safely bear; for if these should loe broken off close to the head death would soon ensue: if only cracked, they are hooped about with iron bands, and are thus rendered serviceable for many years." At one time most of the teak was purchased from the hill chiefs, who divided their allegiance between the Kings of Burmah and Siam; but of late the timber, having become scarce, has had to be sought for much further from the river banks. Disputes have also arisen between the rival chiefs as to the ownership of the land on which the logs were cut, and, in addition to caravans having been attacked and plandered, often two or three litigants appear to claim payment for the same log. The result of this state of matters has been a scrious interference with the trade of Maulmain, once regarded as the most flourishing town in British Burmah. Bassein is an ancient scaport, the capital of a large and important district. Akyab, A.akan, Pegu (p. 112), Sittang, Martaban, and Tenasserim may be mentioned as other towns, all of whieh have, as tropical towns will have, an extremely family likeness. Where, in addition, these towns are British, the similarity of one to another is to a strauger still more marked, though of course long familiarity enables a resident to differentiate sharply between the pleasures and miseries of particular districts and stations.

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## CHAPTER VI.

## Siam; Cambodia; Anam; Cociln-Cinna.

Under the name of Indo-China, Chen India, or Farther India, is comprised Burmah, Siam, Cochin-China, and the neighbouring petty chieftainships, prineipalitięs, nul kingdoms, ineluding Cambodia and Anam. China and India limit their extension to the north, while the Bay of Bengal, the Malay Peninsula-the Golden Chersonese of the ancients-the Gulf of Siam, and the China Sea bound them in other direetions. Burmah we have already notieed. But Burmah, though in some respeets to us a more important kingdom than Siam, is neither so prosperous nor on the way to such peaceful prosperity as the latter. Thai, or Muang Thai-the Free, or tie Kingdom of the Free-consists of forty-one provinees, but except the northern part of the country, which is mountainous, Siam is really one great plain, intersected by two main rivers, to the overflow and silt of which it owes its present fertility, and in all likelihood its actual existence, just as Holland may be said to be born of the Rhine, and Egypt-so far as the delta is con-cerrect-to be the child of the Nile. The chief of these rivers is the Menam, or Meinam, which, as in the ease of the Tibetan Sanpoo, is a word simply meaning the river. llowing from the mountains of Yun-nan, it falls, after a course of 800 miles, into the sea thirty miles below the city of Bangkok, it and its numerous tributaries daining a vast portion of the kingdom. But the Menam is not only the great artery and highway of Siam, but its inumdations over some 12,000 square miles give fertility to the soil and ensure the suceess of the riee erop, and in the rieh deposit whieh they leave behind it supplies a soil eapable of yielding the finest erops with the slightest cultivation. Indeed, the whole valley of the river is one of the most fertile regions in the world. The same may be said of the lands adjoining the Mei-Kong, a river whieh flows for 1,600 miles through the eastern distriets of the country. So grateful, indeed, is the soil, that though to this day no bet $\cdots$. tillage is given to it in many distriets than simply to turn buffaloes into the fields to trample down the weeds and disturb the soil suffieiently to permit of the secd being depositell, and harrowed over by dragging thorny bushes over it, immense harvests are obtained. Under a better system of agrieulture, introdueed by !uropeans, and through the exertions of the enlightened monarehs who have for some time ruled Siam, riee, sugar, and the usual tropieal erops already noticed as the staples of Burmah are grown in such abundance as to afford material for a large export trade. But Siam is not only rieh in an exuberant soil, in all erops which will grow in its warm climate, in jungles whieh yield teak, dye, and gum-woods, in forests full of wild animals, nnd rivers and creeks swarming with exeellent fish, but precious stones, gold, and silver are also found in no small abnudance. Copper, tin, lead, and iron are plentiful, and are worked by the Chinese, who in this, as in all the neighbouring comntries, are the most industrions and enterprising of the inhabitants. That gold and silver is plentiful is proved by the extensive use made
of hoth metals in ormamental work. Vases, urus, and various "kuick-knaeks" for display or use are made of silver, with gold figures embossed on them, nud sent ull over the last, in which they possess a certain celebrity. Among their other arts, gold-beating

a heddhist wat, of temple, at bangook, siam.
-the gold being among the most duetile known-iron-founding, the making of glasswares, pottery, and the weaving of fine eloth may be ineluded. Unlike Burmah, the Siamese have a regular eoinage, the tical, or bat, a silver coin worth about half-a-crown, and impressed with the figure of an elephant. Spanish dollars are, however, mueh in use, and of late years bronze money, coined in England, has displaced the numerous halfpeuny

paper uotes in circulation. The Royal Mint is provided with machinery of English manufacture, though all the work inside the building is done by Siamese artizans. The cannon foundry is also "run" by natives, but many of the enormous brass gums which are preserved inside the arsenal were originally cast under the direction of the Portuguese during the time they visited the country.

Bad legislation and the system of monopolies which his Siamese Majesty, like others of his Oriental brethren, loved, played such havoc with the commerce of the


GENERAL VIEW OF BANKOK AND TIE MENAM RIVER.
country, that it was not until 1855 that the once brisk trade of Bankok began to revice. In that year Sir John Bowring framed a treaty of commerch with the Siamese king, providing for religious and commercial freedom, and, above all, giving the British traders permission to purchase goods directly from the dealer or prodneer without the interference of the king or any other person. The effect was soon visible. At Bankok -the only port from whieh we lave anything like accurate statisties, and the one almost alone visited by foreign ships-the valne of the exports for 1576 was $£ 1,985,678$, while the imports were of the value of $£ 1,210,615$. Riee is the main artiele exported, but agila, or eagle-wood, mueh valued in the East for its perfume, gntta-percha, eardamoms, gamboge, pepper, teel-sced, bamboo, rattans, sugar, tobacco, sago, coffee, skins, guavis, mangroes, sapan-wood, rose-wood, and other timbers, and even the tusks of elephants,
which, though considered the property of the king, and therefore not allowed to be killed, are freely slain sub rosa, since the natives in the wilder parts of the conntry have discovored that there is a lucrative market for them among the foreign traders. Among the articles imported, various textile fabries, hardware, and opium may be mentioned. But though the British tride with Siam is considerable, the direct commerce between our islands and that country is inconsiderable. Nevertheless, the number of British ships visiting Bankok is vastly greater than that of any other nation. Even the Siameso vessels are fewer, while the Chinese jonks, numerous as they are, do not quite equal the number of British merchantmen trading with the chief city of Siam. Forced labour for the benefit of the owners of the land interferes sadly with the internal prosperity and producing power of the country. Ilence the soil, though as rich as any which the sun shines on, does not produce a great surplus, and in some places returus to the scant tillage of the peasant barely enongh of food to support him and his fendal lord. The Chinese, not being sulject to forced labour, have settled in the country in great numbers. It is they who own the large rice factories at the capital, in which the "paddy" is freed from the husk and packed for export. It is, again, the Chinese who are the most prosperous merchants, and whose floating shops along the river front strike the visitor as among the most ingenious arrangements for trade devised by an ingenious people. One side is left open to display goods; the other shelters the tradur's family. When business is not brisk at the spot first chosen, the floating dwelling is simply unmoored, and floated up or down the river with the tide to a spot which seems to present a more favourable opening for trade. Nor are they backward in competing with the uatives in more toilsome, but less money-making, ocenpations. The Siamese are not a race addicted to over-exertion. Timid, careless, gentle, almost passionless, idle, inconstant, exacting, and though not truthful when they find lying a useful protection, sincere, affectionate, witty, and unworldly, they are but children in the hands of the keen Chinese, who know no scruples, possess not a lazy bone in their lithe bodies, and are realy at any moment to scii themselves ( $o$ : any one else) to gain a "pice." In Siam the male Siamese do not number more than 2,600,000, while the Chinese exceed $1,500,000$. The rest of the population, which is calculated by Dr. Bastian to number in all under six millions and a half, is made up of Laotians, Malays, Cambodians, and Burmese from the province of Pegu-or Peguans, to be more precise. Of the inhabitants of Bankok nearly one-half are Chinese, and, indeed, at Pekin the country is considered to be one of the Emperor's tribntary states, a theory borne out by the fact that Siam pays tribute to China, though it may be added this is only done as a conven ience and according to old usage, since the Siamese gain so far by this that their junks are admitted into Chinese ports duty free. Siam, on the other hand, claims to be the suzerain of the Malay Peniusula rajahs, of Tringame, Kalantan, Patani, and Kedah (Vol. IV., p. 260), the Laotian princes of Xiengmai, Laptun, Lakhon, Phrë, Nun, Luang-Phra-Bang, and MuaugLom; while Cambodia, being awkwardly situated between Siam on one side and the Anam, or Cochin-Chinese kingdom, on the other, prefers as a matter of policy to pay tribute to both. Indeed, the real limits of the kinglom are now diflieult to trace, the borders being occupied by so many half-independent tribes. Even the population, in spite of a more or less accurate census, it is difficult to arrive at an aceurate estimate of, for Siam, like many
other Eastern nations, considers the males the only iuhabitants worth enumerating. In romul numbers, however, the country may be said to comprise an area of about 250,000 square miles, inhabited by the number of people mentioned. Nevertheless, some statisticians give the country from 190,000 to 309,000 square miles, and put the population seattered over this wide region at nearly $12,000,000$.

The Covernment was, until the law of 1874, an absolute monarehy-a despotism as complete as that of Burmah; but sit.ce that date-nominally, at least-the king's authority has been limited and modified by the legislative power being shared by the Supreme Council of the Empire and with the "Senabodi," or Comeil of Ministers, though in affairs of minor importance the vote of the Council of Stats suffices. This council is presided over by the king (p. 132), and is composed of ministers-who, however, have not the right to vote-of from ten to twenty counsellors, nominated by the king, and of six princes "of the blood." The crown is hereditary, but the eldest son of the king does not neeessarily suceeel his father, the king reserving to limself the right of appointing a successor. This choice must, however, be confirmed by the Senabodi, in common with the princes of the four lighest classes in the kingdom. One of the peculiarities of the Government is, however, that there is a "second ling" (p. 133), as he is usually called in Europe, though he is in reality only a "major domo;" but the latter, often the son of the first, is now a very minor personage, and at most does not exereise any other authority than being the nominal head of the army, though he receives a large eivil list, and a guard of honour, and is usually consulted on all affairs of importance by the first king, with whom, as a rule, he is on terms of the greatest friendship. In most affairs of state he may practically be left out of account, for it is evident that his position and character have been much misunn rstoul, it being very doubtiul whether he ought to be called a "king" at all in 1. namal acceptation of the term. The forty-one provinees are governed by "phrayas," a "phraya" being a eounsellor of the first elass. A "tianon phraya," again, is equivalent to a prisy counsellor, and "enjoys" the title of "exeellency."

The exact revenue of the country it is difficult to get even an estimate of. The sum which annually arrives in the Bankok Treasnry is sometimes put at $£ 800,000$; but if the poll-tax, fines for exemption from the army, land-tax, tax on fruit-trees, pepper, spirits, gambling, and customs yield over $£ 3,000,000$, as has been estimated by the consular agents, there must be enormons peculation somewhere. The tax-gatherers, indeed, reeeive no salary; and as there is no system of audit and cheek effieient enough to keep their greed under control, a late writer on the subjeet* is perhaps not far wrong when he affirms that the offieials "s'appropriant frauduleusement la plus grande partie des revenus." The king, in addition to the "control" of the revenue, is entitied to four months' labour, or its equivalent, from each of his suljects, the priests and the Chinese settlers (who commuie for it by another tax), slaves, public functionaries, and the fathers of three sons liable to serve exeepted. Any one, however, can purchase exemption by

[^45] £1,200 000 .
paying los. to 20s. per month, or by furnishing a substitute in the person of some other person not liable to conscription. The army is at present drilled by European officers;

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and as every person over twenty-one years of age must serve under the colours, the result is said to be a very effieient foree. The Siamese mavy consists of fourteen steamers with fifty-one gruns, chietly oflicered by Englishmen, and organised on the English model. In


THE " BECOND KING" OF SLAM IN HIS STATE HOBES,
steamers, under the Siamese flag. Altogether the conntry seems on a fair way to prosperity, though the material to work upon is not very promising. The last two kings were men of considerable enlightemment, and even learning ; and the present sovereign-a young
man of twenty-seven-has alrealy visited India nud some of the neighbouring colonies in seareh of knowledge. He is reported to be willing to imitate European ways so far as they seem to suit his people. Already he has the distribution of four orders of knighthool-the Star of Nine Points, the White Elephant, the Crown, and the Chulachoncho-and, among other of the distinctions which fall maturally to eivilised or partially barbarous kings, is decorated with the Grand Cross of the English Order of St. Michael and St. George. He has sent amhassadors to England, has a consular agent in London, and is desirous of cultivating grood relations with the British Government. At one time the Siamese Empire extended to Singapore, the suzerainty over the Malay rajals exercised by the king being a survival of those palmy days of "Thai," but the present dymasty does not date back further than 178\%. The established religion of the country is Buddhism; and though Protestant and other missionaries have been labonring in it sinee 1525, their efforts to change the opinions of the Siamese have been almost in vain. The barbarous tribes on the border and the Chinese have, however, been more impressible.

The country has great eapabilities, and the prosperity of some of the cities astonishes a visitor whose prepossessions have been derived from a visit to some of the more ordinary Malay towns, which they are saic to resemble. Bankok, or Bangkok, as it is sometimes spelt, is sixteen miles in a straight line from the coast, but before it can be reached by the Menam River eighty miles of winding current have to be traversed. The Gulf of Siam, into which this river flows, is 450 miles in length by 235 in breadth; and though the peninsula of Cambodia consists for the most part of low-lying lands, it is mavisited by hurrieanes, and hence shipwreeks are rare in this portion of the Eastern seas. The Menam River is impeded by a bar; but so far from the Siamese Government considering this a disadvantage, they object to any efforts being made to dredge it out, and bave even swn three junks in order to still further render the invasion of the capital by a foreign flect a dillieult and dangerous operation. The mouth of the river is bordered by mangrove swamps and jungle, but beyond these are immense rice-fields. Higher up the river is Paknam, with a popmlation of 7,000 , and several forts. Here is the Custom House, a very dilapidated and altogether, to Europenn ideas, most unofficial-looking building, where the method of transacting business is about equally primitive. The river-banks are here covered with tropieal vegetation, and some immense sugar-plantations, riee-fields, and Burmese villages, with oraugegardens and orchards of fruit-trees, make their appearance. But so dense is the regetation, and so low the ground, that the eity cannot be seen until it is elosely approached, the chicf signs of the eapital of Siam being near at hand being the presence of foreign ships anchored in the river, and a number of native vessels flying the national standard of a white elephant on a crimson ground. Its population is vagnely estimated at from 255,000 to half a million.

In earlier days Bankok contested the commereial supremacy of the East with Canton and Calentta. It is often called the Veniee of the East, not so mueh becanse, either commercially or politically, the eapital of Siam has anything in common with the Queen of the Adriatie, but simply because locomotion through both eitics must be accomplished in much the same fashion. Almost every house in Bankok-as, indeed, in se many towns in Malaysia-is built on piles or on a floating raft, and its thoroughfares are
simple
land,
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monso the ln month founde founder town, ont, at the riv present their li Execpit equally other is it, so intuitive with th sorts, f to hold of royal iungle every the surf of whic traveller: of ail E what se The mit the roof plates of scem bu eubellish intriusica pagodas, priestslivelihoor either b have beq
Porcelain
simple canals and intersecting branches of the river. 'There are a few footpaths on firm land, and the king has begun to build highways along the side of the principal canals. Yet the town is not unhealthy, and, for the tropies, is even salubrious. At Bankok the mean temperature is about $81^{\circ}$, the maximum heat $97^{\circ}$, and the lowest cold felt in eight years was $51^{\circ}$. Sivery year the country is visited ly the sonth-west and north-east monsoons, the former laden with cool clouds, thunderstorms, and torrents of rain, the hater the harbinger of refreshing weather, which "sets up" the residents, jaded by the loot months which preceded it. Indeed, the lonilding on piles and ralts was suggested to the founder of Baukok solely by sanitary reasons. Originally the capital was at Ayuthia, founded in 1350 ; but when, in 1769 , it was removed to the present site, the new town, like the old, was luilt on the bunks of the river. Cholera, however, soon broke out, and was so frequent that one of the kings ordered the dwellings to be built on the river itself, in order to obtain greater cleanliness and ventilation. Hence at the present day the Siamese of Bankok may be said to be almost amphibious. Most of their life is passed on the water, and nearly all of their animal food they get from it. Exept about the king's palaee, horses are rarely seen, and carriages were formenty equilly unknown. Canoes and boats are the ordinary modes of conveyance, and one or other is an alsolute necessary to every houselold. A child is early trained to navigate it, so that men, women, and ehildren use the oar, the paddle, and the rudder almost intuitively. Even the Clinese have left their sedan behind them, and, in common with the Siamese, take kindly to boat-life. The waters are covered with barges of all sorts, from the skiff, to use the language of a modern writer, "searcely large enough to hold a dog, to the magnifieently adorned barge which is honoured with the presence of royalty; from the shabbiest canse hewn out of the small trunk of a tree from the jungle up to the roofed and curtained, the carved and gilded barque of the noblesevery rank and condition has its boats piying in endess aetivity night and day on the surfaee of the Menam waters." Bankok is, in a word, "a floating eity," the limits of which on land it is at first sight impossible to determine. The first view of it all travellers agree in deseribing as rather imposing (p. 129). In the dim light, it may be, of ail Lastern morning there bursts on the sight a panorama of towers and the roofs of what seems an endless array of temples, or pagolas, each standing in its own grounds. The mind revels in old fairy tales of the "gorgeons East" as the sun glances over the roofs and walls of these edifices, eaeh of which seems ablaze with jewels and plates of gold. A closer view is, however, disappointing. The walls which at a distance seem built up of gems are diseovered to be only briek and mortar, or perhaps wood, embellished with tawdry gilding, porcelain, and rieh mosaics of glass, which, though intrinsieally of little value, present a splendid coruseation of eolours. Most of these pagodas, in which the rites of the Buddhist faith are administered by thousands of priests-though many of these have now been turned adrift in order to earn a liselihood by more honourable means than begging-have been built by pious men, who, either by good works of this type during their lifetime, or by moncy which they have bequeatied for the purpose, have hoped to atone for many previous shorteomings. Porcelain ensers into the com. nsition of the walls of these buildings, but often in a
peculiar fashion. It is humble carthenware, fragments of broken plates, and other utensils of a like quality. There is a fumiliar story told at Bankok, which Mr. Ihomson has recorded, how a roguish trader arrived in the river with a cargo of crockery on speeulation. The venture hung long on his hands. The willow pattern seemed not in favour with a people who are not defieient in taste; but at last, when the trader began to think that ruin was not far off, fortune delivered into his hands a wenlthy Siamese noble who was busy finishing one of these "wats," or shrines. To him the owner of the shipload of crockery addressed himself, representing that it was the fashion in Lurope for places of worship to be decorated with ewers, soup-plates, milk-


A slamese war elephant.
jugs, tea-cups, and even less noteworthy pieces of poreelain. The bait took, and hence the rechecché ornamentation of the Buddhist temple, in which rows of pudding-dishes are fastened in the plaster, and collections of dish-covers decorate tho balconies and parapet. It is, however, satisfactory to find that before the trader was paid the imposition was discovered by the "pious founder," and the tale ends by relating how the rogue not only lost all chance of future dealings with the Siamese, but even met present retribution by not being paid for his useful wares put to a useless purpose. The royal palace is a fine building, furnished in a mixture of European and Orieutal styles; however, of late years the decorations, especially in the apartments intended for public inspection, have inclined more and more over towards Western tastes, or rather towards those of the still Further East, Calcutta, and not London or Paris, being the model in those parts of the world.

The Siamese prisons are almost as bad as those of Burmah, and the punishments
awarded to crime quit, as cruel, in spite of the Buddhist religion teaching that it is more blessed to preserve than to destroy life. Serious erime is not great, but is replaced by a very lax condition of public mornity. Polygamy flourishes with a vigour unknown in China, opium-smoking is as universal as in the latter conntry, and gambling is equally a passion among both nations. Justice is administered with ostentatious gravity, but in reality is flagrantly bonght and sold, the agents concerned in the business being, however, so subtle and polished that, as Mr. Thomson remarks, even the sober, dignifiedlooking judge almost persuades himself that he is practically the upright person he is theoretically supposed to be, though he knows full well that a little gold mysteriously dropped into the scales will make the balance of justice kick the beam on one side or the other. However, of late years Siam has ehanged greatly for the better. The late king was a man of superior intelligence, but his mind was moulded thorougbly on the eld lines, and therefore he could scarcely be expected to turn out a reformer after the modern fashion. The present sovereign is, however, a person of a different stamp. His early education was intrusted to an English lady, Mrs. Leonowens, who has published an aecount of her life at the Siamese Court, and the early ideas he thus imbibed have been enlarged by his visits to Singapore and Calcutta, and the constant intercourse he holds with foreigners. Slavery has been abolished, and the custom of crouching in the presence of a superior has been decreed no longer necessary. The army-wo have seen-is equipped and drilled after the European fashion, and is said to be more efficient than that of Burmal. The artillery is modern and serviceable, and elephants (p. 136) are carefully trained for war purposes. Private houses are even begiming to be modelled on those of the West, and the king, since his visit to Calcutta, seems anxious that some at least of the streets of his eapital should bear a semblance to those of that city by having a fountain in the circus formed by the intersection of two ways. In addition, he has made a good road around the city, just within the walls, and has added several blocks of compact two-storey brick houses to those built ly his father. When we mentioned that the river and the canals which intersect the city were the only modes of conveyanee in Bankok, it ought to have been added, until the completion of this road. The possession of a road has suggested earriages. Ox-carts (p.160) have accordingly been introduced, and it is now reported that some of the wealthier nobles have taken to importing carriages from Calcutta, and may be seen taking a drive at the fashionable hour of the afternoon, "sitting gravely upright, and, as they roll along the dusty streets, looking upon their friends and neighbours with a very perceptible sense of new-found importance, illustrative of deep culture and nice refinement." This advance in civilisation necessarily follows, since the king has started a barouche and six horses, in which, driven by liveried postillions, and attended by "gorgeous outriders and a mounted escort of the royal guard," he regularly takes his aring in the proper style of the Maidan Esplanade in the Indian eapital.

With the exception of Bankok, there are few other large towns in Siam worthy of note. Among the exceptions may be included Pechaburi, alout a hundred miles south-west of the capital, where the king has built a palace, and the reputation of which for healthiness is sueh that both the Europeans and natives use it as a sanatorium. It is built at the mouth of the Pechaburi River, near the range of hills which divides Siam from the Tenasserim
province of British Burmal. Though its appearance would not lead one to imagine it thickly populated, yet so closely do these Oriental people huddle together that we are not surprised to learn that there are some 20,000 inhabitants in this peculiarly Siamese town. The king's palace is built on the summit of a hill at the back of the city, and on mn adjoining eminence are some pagolas and temples, and near the foot of it various Bullhist monasterics, the inmates of which are occupied in instructing native youth gratuitously. In this locality is also a cave "filled with idols," chielly gilt Buddhas, and the entrance to it is shaded by trees filled with chattering monkeys. The king lives for a few montlis in the year at Pechaburi for the sake of his bealth, and since he has acquired a taste for European luxury is fond of driving along the excellent roads which hes has constructed in and about the city. The governor of the place was also met by one of the latest visitors driving in a "buggy," the buggy and the European shirt and sun-lat leing the outer emblems of the Western habits which are being so rapidly engrafted on the Siamese, the "panoung," or cloth worn round the waist and passed between the leg, with striped socks and patent leather slippers, and the finely-wrought gold "xroh," or betel-box, being the native side of his excellency's culture.

At Pechaburi also reside several American missionaries; but the extent of their success is limited, the Siamese being more anxious to learn English than to exchange their old fuith for the new one offered to them by these self-denying visitors. Near the town is a Laos village, the buts being built of bamboo on piles, and roofed with palm-leaves (p. 124). Under the floor are housed the domestic animals, and here also are stowed away all kinds of rubbish not valuable enough to be sheltered in the upper chamber. In the rear of the hut is usually a large barn for keeping the supply of riee; but in the hut itself, with the exception of a few baskets and large boxes, there is nothing in the shape of furniture. These people have often been at war with the Siamese, who, though masters, have learned to respect their adversaries as no mean foes. In Siam there are, especially at Angkor, in the province of Siamrap, ruins of gigantie temples and other buildings, pointing to an era when a higher stage of civilisation had been renehed in this region. But as these remains are found in greater perfection in the neighbouring kingdom of Cambodia, it may be useful to economise our space by reserving what we have got to say regarding this feature of the Further East until we reach the empire which will be the subjeet of the next section.*

## Cambodia.

Jammed in between Siam, the kingdom of Anam, and French Cochin-China, is one of the most ancient monarchies in the woold, albeit its name is little heard nowadays, and has not yet been honoured with a place in that lilro d'oro of sovercigns, the dlmanach de Gotha. Cambodia-or, as it really ought to be written, Kamboja,

[^46]or Kampouehia-the kingdom in question, though at present in a condition of passive decay, is still a country of much interest, but more from what it holds of the past than what it contains of importance to the modern workadny werld. lt is the home of the "Ko," "Kamer," or "Khmer;" but as to who the Khmer are or were there is the usual anount of obseurity which hangs around everything comected with the history and ethnology of this part of Further India. Their own tradition is that before they came from the north the "Isiam" or "Champa" people were in possession of the country, whilst "the Khmer themselves seem to have preceded the deseent of the 'Thain' raee, to which the people of Siam and Laos belong."' But the written annals of Cambodia do not streteh further back than 10 $40-\mathrm{a}$ period when, Colonel Yule thinks, in all probability, the kingdom's power, and perhaps its civilisation, had passed their climax. When the Portuguese found their way to the country, soon after the conquest of Mnlacea, some traces of the former splendour of Cambodia still remained; but even these remnants soon died away. By the end of the sistenth century "the land swarmed with foreign adventurers," the most active of whom were Japanese; and at the iustigation of these vagabonds the Manilla Spaniards attempted various filibustering expeditions, though with little result. The Portuguese, however, managed to estallish factories in the country, and by the end of the seventeenth century both the Duteh and the English had established settlements on the mainland or on the islands off the coast. Meantime the country was ground between Siam and Cochin-China as between the upper and nether mill-stones. By repeated seizures the former reduced the kingdom to its present limits. In 1846 the kingdom was put under the joint protectorate of Siam and Coehin-China as its suzerains; but this step did not prevent France from seizing in 1859 the Anamite provinces in the delta of the Mekong, nor from constituting the colony of "Cochin-China," and thus still further reducing the ancient kingdom of Cambodia. Finally, in 1804, the country-or what remained of it-was put under a joint Siamese and Freneh protectorate, and the then king crowned in the presence of envoys from the two "powers." But as a Siamese envoy has since that date censed to reside at the Cambodian capital, the country may be said to be practically under French control, and its present respite from utter annihilation to be due to this fact. How long it is so to continue it would be rash to jrophesy.

The chief feature of Cambodia-grographically-is the Mekong River and its chicf tributary, the Mesap (p. 144), whieh flows through it, and the "Great Fresh-Water Lake" (Talé-Sab), a shallow depression in the alluvial, which retains part of the annual overflow of the river, and is hence subject to great variations in size and depth. In Bengal such lakes-Colonel Yule notes-are called "jhîls." The Cambodian one during the rains is said to be about 120 miles long, and from eight to twenty-two in breadth. During the dry season its depth does not average over four feet, though in some parts of the middle no bettom has been found. The Udong River-a broad channel, uniting the lake and the Mekong-fills the lake from the latter river in the months from June to December, but for the rest of the year

[^47]it drains the lake into the Mekong. Its waters aboual with fish, which during the dry season are caught in great mumbers by the matives. Duriug that period they builh pile villages in the lake, and there dry and salt the product of their indastry for export to China, either in that condition, or living in cages, or for conversion into oil. During this period an immense flect of tishing-smacks come on its waters, but the terrible storms foree them to seek shelter during the miny season. Along the shores of the lake during tho dry season are ulso found lurge herds of wild elchhunts, which at one time wero so numerous that a fairly tamed one-useful as a beast of burden, though not equal to those trained in India-conld be bonght fur $£ 10$ or $\mathfrak{f 1 2}$. A rhinoceros also hamits the foot of the momutains north of the lake, and there are said to be three species of wild

hiew in kilong, cambida.
cattle fomul throughout the country. The Cambodian ponies are noted for their strength and beanty, and form a considerable article of export to Bankok. The horns of the rhinoceros, eardamoms, gamboge, and eagle-wool are also articles of commerce. Gamboge, indecd, though deriving its name from the country, is chiefly found in the old Cumbodian part of Siam -mot far from Korat-and, as Mr. Hanbury has shown, is the gum of Gatrinin Morella, var. pelicellata, though less esteemed varieties, scarcely kuown commereially in this country, are obtained from various species of American, Ceylon, and Mysore plants.* Eagle or aloewood (p. 129), for which the country was even noted among the early Arab voyagers, is also at present chiefly found in Siamese territory, near Chantibun, not far from the coast. The terms eagle-wood, agila, \&c., Colonel Yule observes, have really nothing to do with eagles, but are corruptions of the Sansirrit Aguru, whieh again applies to the internal cavities in the soft wood of Aquilaria agallocha, the result of disease, but for which the

[^48]
tree is valued. Nutmegs, liquorice, caontchoue, gutta-pee eha, sapan-wood, pepper, rice, cotton, and benzoin are among the other products of the eountry recorded by Yule, and hides, horns, tortoiseshell, ivory, lae, and dried elephant's flesh are also exported. The iron smelted and wrought by some of the hill tribes, thugh not an article of commerce, is of a high quality.

The country has now only one port-Kampot-and the trade is chiefly in the hands of the Chinese. The capital itself and several of the interior cities are surrounded by fine tracts of alluvial land, but a high range of hills has to be passed before Panompin (P'nompenh of the Oricntal purist), the metropolis (p. 145), is reached. When Cambodia was at the height of its prosperity, Angkor was the chief city of the kingdom, but in conseciuence of its exposure to Siamese attacks it was abandoned, and after much ehopping about the seat of government was, in 1866, transferred to Pimompin, at the confluence of the outlet of the Great Lake with the Mekong-though it ougint to be noted that only the southern half of this sheet of water, which is regarded with much superstition, belong, to Cambodia, the northern part being claimed and actually in possession of Siam. "Panompin" —" the Mountain of Gold"—is deseribed by Mr. Vinceni as duil. "Nothing breaking the unitormity of the bamboo huts excepting a slender pyramidal pagoda, one of the palace buildings, and two ble cks of brick stores built by the king; it resembles many of the villages on the banks of the Mesap, only differing from them in size, in number of dwellings, and shops." In the city is a French mission, a number of European traders, a company of French troops, and a French commandant, or Procteeteur, as he is styled, "who represents French interests versus his Majesty's." One or more French gunboats are also usually stationed on the river, though the trim appearance of the vessels flying the tricolour, compared with the rather dilapidated warvessels from which float the red-bordered blue fiag of Cambodia, must to the natives be an ever present signal that the glory of the "Khmer" bas departed. Panompin itself r. $\therefore$ nds along the banks of the river for a distance of about three miles, but with the exception of an cmbankment of earth on the landward side, erected at the time of the Anamite troubles, there is no wall about the city, nor even around the palace. The main street runs along the river bank. Its maeadam consists mainly of heok-n brick and sand, and the shops on either side are bamion bats, owned by Chisese, Klings, or by Cambodians and Cochin-Chinese, though many of these shops are, in addition, gambling dens and opium-smoking haunts. In the Cambodian stores cotton and the silk goods for which the country is famous may be had, while the Klings deal ehiefly in European wares. There are also among the 20,000 people in the town a number of Siamese, but the Cochin-Chinese are the principal foreigners, and may at once be distinguished from the Cambodians by their lower stature, less museular frames, more Mongol features, and by their long hair being fastened in a knot behind. The palace is really a fine building, King Norodom the First's great ambition being to live in a finer house than his Majesty of Siam, and to imitate as far as may be the manners, dress, and tout ensemble of the French nation, and especially of the second French limpire, whose poliey first made him aequainted with his polite neighbours. It is also needless to say that his Majesty is a Grand Cross of the Legion, and generally is as much of a lrenchman as his
limited education and Indo-Clinese face will admit of. His people are grod-natured and apathetic, with little aptitude or ambition for trade, and hence the wealth of Canbodia is monopolised by Chinese, Anamites, and Malays. The national religion is Puddhism, mixed up with much pagan superstition, such as calling on the "devil-dancing medicine man" in sickness. There are also 2,000 Roman Catholic Christians, and on the const very ancient settlements of Malay Mohammedans. In addition, there live on the confines of Cambodia numbers of wild, or, as Colonel Yule more justly prefers to call them, illiterate tribes, with whose religion and habits we are still very imperfectly aequainted. The Cambodian lauguage differs from all the neighbouring tongues, but their letters are "an ornamental form of the Pali, which has been the foundation of all the Inlo-Chinese alphabets." The inseriptions on the ancient momments are, however, in an older form, not understood by the modern priests. The government has undergone few or no changes of late years, except what the introduction of foreign manners has forced on it. The king is an absolute monareh, and most aceounts represent him having under him a seeond king, corresponding to the "Yuvaraja" of ancient India, and by a corruption of which title he is known. The furniture and decorations of the palace are quite as fine as the building itself, though, as always happens in such cases in Oriental buildings, the costly articles which have been huddeed wholesale into the rooms are scattered in the most heterogeneons manner, more for the salie of being shown to visitors than for any enjoyment the owner can derive from them. The king, however, takes a great pride in his palace, the splendour of which contasts so painfully with the equalor of the surrounding streets of hovels, Indeed, his Majesty is said never to hesitate a moment in appropriating private property when he finds that by doing so he can beantify his nwn residenco. Nevertheless, he is well liked by his people, and rules with as fair an approach to reetitude as ean be expeeted from an Oriental potentate. The presence of Freneh soldiers in his capital has, moreover, taken away from him that wholesale fear of his subjects which at one time aeted as a deterrent to any gross misconduct on the part of himself and offieials, while at the same time the watchful eye of the "Proetectenr" sees that anything in the shape of Burmah-like savagery does not openly, at least, display itself. Ite is also beginning to imbibe something of the "free thinking" notions of his Gallic neighloours, and when it suits his mood mocks at Buddha, or treads under foot the ancient and almost religious etiquette of his country. Within the list few years he has visited Hong-Kong, Shanghai, and other eities, in order, like his Siamese brother, to see the world for himself. The Cambodians do not, however, hold out even to an optimist much hope of ever attaining anything like their ancient greatness, for they are not an energetie race: the chances rather are that in time they will gradually lose their independence by beconing part and parcel of the French Empire. The king is, indeed, already surrounding himself with European advisers. His chief aide-de-eamp at tie period of Mr. Vincent's visit was an Euglish Jew, and his small army, mainly composed of natives of the Philippines, is beginning to be offieered by Frenchmen. The machine shops attached to the "arsenal" are superintended by French artisans; in the stables are French horses, thongh, owing to the all important absence of good roads, neither they nor the French and English carriuges owned by the king
can be used exeept on very high and very painful oceasions; and, as the European visitors who have been hespitably entertained by Norodom the First are agreeably aware, bis Majesty of Cambodia has in his pay a French cook, comming in his art. Even between the date of Mr. Thomson's visit and the year 1850 there seemed to have been great adyances in the Cambodian monarch's education, so that we may soon expect to hear that the Indo-Chinese laequer has been quite covered with Freneh polish. Mr. Monhot's description of Oodong, when-in 1860-it was the capital, corresponds very elosely to that which Mr. Vincent has given of Panompin at the present day. He especially notes the animation of the town, owing to the number of chiefs resorting to it for business and plensure, or who were passing through it on their way from one provinee


VIEW ON THE BANKS OF THE MEsAP, CAMMODA.
to another. "Liery moment," he writes, "I met mandarins, either bome in litters or on foot, follcwed by a crowd of slaves earrying various articles; some yellow or scarlet parasols, more or less according to the rank of the person, and the boxes with betel. I also eneountered horsemen momuted on pretty, spirited little animals, rishly eaparisoned and covered with bells, ambling along, while a troop of attendants, covered with dust and sweltering with heat, ran after them. Light earts, drawn by a couple of small oxen, trotting along rapidly and noisily, were here and there to be seen. Occasionally a large elephant passed majestically by. On this side were numerous processions to the pagola, marching to the sound of music; there, agrain, was a band of ecelesiasties in single file, seeking alms, draped in their yellow eloaks, amd with the holy vessels on their backs." Kâmoot, the sole seaport of the country, is on the Gulf of Seam: it is approached by a small shallow river, not easily mavigable, and interrupted by a bar, which eompels large ships to anchor in the roadstead outside. The chief merehants are lokien Chinese, but the trade is now redued to very small proportions.
decorated of cut : embranke they wor and tem the great of the 1 son, Car any settl heart of strikes

Cambodia is, however, in modern times of most note for its ancient remains (p. IW). These gigantie remnants of a former age-comparable only, as regards their contrast with the present, to the ruins of Mexico and Central America (Vol. III., p. 24)are found in more than forty different localities, thongh the most important localities for them are now all in Siamese territory, north of the Great Fresh-Water Lake. "The remains," to we the concise description of Colonel Yule, "embrace walled cities of large extent; palaces and temples, stupendons in seale and rich in design, and often most elaborately

decorated with long galleries of storeyed bas-reliefs; artificial lakes enclosed by walls of ent stone; stone bridges of extroordinary design and excellent execution; elaborate embanked highways aeross alluvial thats, \&c. Were it possible to reconcile the greogrophy, they would almost justify the extravagant fietions of Mendez Pinto regarding the palaces and temples of Timplan and Timagogo." The most surprising of these struetures is the great Wat or Temple of Angkor, or Nagkhon, the ancient capital, fifteen miles north of the lake, and the one with whieh, owing to the exertions of Mouhot, Bastian, Thomson, Carné, and Vincent, we are better acquainted than any other. Miles away from any settlement, save the few rude hats of the attendant priests, embedded into the heart of a primesal forest of cocoa, betel-mut, and todly palms, the first sight of it strike the beholder witi an awe and astonishment which a closer examination only
serves to intensify. The corridors, towers from 180 feet upwards, lordly flights of steps, carved walls, griffins, pillars, and halls of this magnificent edifice well entitle it to be called one of the arehitectural wonders of the world. It has been pronoumeed as imposing as Memphis or Thebes, and more mysterious. All travellers who have visited it-and of late years it has attracted not a few-agree that in this distant part of Siam there exists a building, hardly in ruins, though neglected, which defies all explanation. "The first view of the ruin is almost overwhelming," writes Mr. Vineent, who confesses thet to attempt to deseribe it is beyond his powers. M. Mouhot, whose elaborate details, as well as the fine photographs of Mr. Inomson, are onr chief data regarding this and other Cambodian antiquities, deelares that the Nagkhon Wat Temple is "a rival to that of Solomon, and ereeted by some ancient Michael Angelo," and "might take an honourable place beside our most beautiful buildings. It is grander than anything left to us by Greece or Rome." * It would be worse than useless attempting any elaborate notes on this remarkable structure, or the almost as interesting remains which lie beside it; but the illustration on p. 148 will enable the reader to gain some idea of one of these very remarkable and mysterious buildings of the East. The Nagkhon temple is five miles scuth of the ruins of the city itself. This ancient town is surrounded by walls forming a quadrangle, nearly eight miles and a half in circumference and thirty feet in height, and in addition, there is a very wide diteh outside of all. The walls are pierced by four gates of very "grandiose, though fantastic" architecture. But after examining all these ruins, the question still remains unanswered, Who built these temples and cities? That it was a race identieal with the present Cambodians one can hardly bring oneself to believe. At the date of our earliest aequaintance with this people they did not dwell in these cities, had no tradition even of their builders, and, though living in more magnificent state thau now, so far as concerned their kings and magnates, they were then, no more than now, capable of such senlpture or architecture. Indeed, the details of these ruins are in the main Indian, but much also exists which connects them with Indo-China and Java. Much, again, Colonel Ynle properly remarks, "is unique." But what has ever puzzled, and most likely ever will puzzle, antiquaries is the Roman-Dorie character of the enriched pilasters, so frequent a feature in the building, though in Ceylon and in the mediæval Burmese remains something similar, though not so marked, oceur. From the fact that the Chinese ambassadors, who visited the country between 1290 and 1352 , do not mention the Nagkhon Wat, it is by some thought that it must have been built subsequent to that date. This is, however, too slender a foundation to rear a substantial theory on ; and perhaps the building was, even at the date of their visit, an antiquity, though they did not visit it or note its oceurrence among the many other objects which attracted their attention. We do not even know the objeet for which sueh temples were erected. M. Garnier thinks they were for the worship of Buddha, and undoubtedly some of them were; though Mr. Fergusson, while admitting that he may be wrong, regards the great temples as monuments of that serpent-worship to the elucidation of which he has written such able and extremely ponderous volumes. Every nation, from the Greeks to the lost ten tribes of Israel, has been called in to explain their presence; and though in time the
inscriptions on them may be deeiphered, those which have already been made out afford little hope of our just euriosity being mueh gratified in that direction. It is impossible to believe that these monuments could have been reared by a race who w " og living five hundred years ago. The people who built them must have heen different from the present Cambodians; and unless we bave to revolutionise all our ideas of the rise and decay of civilisation, a much longer interval thar that must have been necesssary to allow of the disappearance or displacement of this wonderful nation of arehitects and seulptors.*

Anam.
In the south-west of China, drained by the rivers Tue-duk-kiang and Song-koi, falling into the Gulf of Tonquin, is a considerable region which, though gengraphically, and perhaps ethoologieally, a part of the Middle Kingdom, is politically not of it. Still further south, slut off from the rest of Indo-China by a range of mountains, is a long coast region drained by many though unimportant rivers, long known as Cochin-Clina; while in the delta of the Mekong is a flat, rich, but unhealthy tract of country which of late years has eome before the world under the name of Lower Coehin-China, though from its present owners it is more frequently called French Cochin-China. As the two regions first named constitute part of the independent Empire of Anam, we shall accordingly designate them by that political title, reserving the more familiar title for the southern province, which since 1507 the French have held.

Peopled possibly from China, it is historically known that for long this region was muder the direct control of Chinese satraps. But towards the close of the tenth century a sucessful rebellion enabled the Anamese to gain such a degree of independence that for at least cight hundred years their country owed but a nominal allegriance to Pekin; and not only did the Anamese prosper within their own borders, but they expanded over them, at the cost of their neighbours, the Cambodians, from whom they wrested Tsiampa and the country whieh at a later period the Freneh managed to wrest from them. About the year 1787 France obtaised a footing on the peninsula of 'Tourane and the Isle of Pulo-Condore, where at present they have a penal settlement; but it was not until 1858 that, on the excuse of

In return for this guarantee the Anamese monareh engages to "aecommodate his poliey to that of France," to annul all ordinances he had passed against the Catholies in his kingdom, to open his ports to foreign commerce, and to permit the residence at each of them of a French consul, with a military guard of not more than one hundred men. Accordingly, at present the ports of Haiphong, Hanoi, and Quinhon are open to foreign vessels. Haiphong is a mere village, where, however, there is a French fort on the Cua-Cam, which is an arm

ruins on mount bakheng, cambodia.
of the embonehere of the Song-koi, or Hongkiong (Red River). Hanoi (150,000 inhabitants), on the Song-koi, properly so called, is the capital of Tonquin, and Quinhon is a port on the coast of Anam, in the province of Binh-Dinh.* The government is an absolute monarchy, without anything in the shape of a constitution, powerful enstom being the sole eheck on the despotism of the king. The throne follows the laws of primogeniture, but all other offices are supposed, as in China, to go by merit-or, at least, by such merit as the system of competitive examinations ean discover. Hence, with the exception of the king, who

[^49] pp. 522-523.
is sovercign, high priest, and supreme judge in one, and whose only advisers in the executive portion of his offices are a Privy Council and seven Ministers, all the Anamese are equal: for office is the only social distinction between man and man, and offiee gocs by fitness. Anam in this respeet resembles China in Asia and Russia in Europe, only in the latter country office goes by favour, not by fitness. The two ehief parts of the empire-Cochiu-China and Tonquin-are governed by viceroys, and the twenty-four provinces are each presided over by a governor.

The Kingdom or Empire of Anam, as it is sometimes called, comprises Cochin-China, without the six lower provinees which now belong to France, Tonquin, which was conquered in 1802, and Tsiampa, which at an carly date was filehed from Cambodia. Under Anam must also be included the tributary states of Laos and the teritory of the independent Mois, or Stiengs-wretched tribes of savages, about whom little is known, save that they live on the frontiers of Cochin-China, and are pagans of a low type. Altogether, exclusive of the French colony, which has an area of 21,630 miles, Anam is abont the size of France, i.e., about 230,000 square miles, with a population of $21,000,000, * 15,000,000$ of whom are in Tonquin. Of these the greater part are lBuddhists, though the higher elasses of Anam profess the doctrines of Confucius; and it is estimated that there are $4 \approx, 000$ Roman Catholies, under six bishops, though, with the exeeption of a few thousands, these are almost confined to Tonquin. Much superstition, however, mingles with their Buddhism; and beyond the respect paid to the dead and to their ancestors gencrally, religion little troubles the apathetie, lazy, unemotional Anamese. They, however, respect their superiors, love their parents and native land, and being fond of mimiery, learn with remarkable facility.

Commerce, as usual in the Indo-Chincse countries, is mainly in the hands of the sharp Chinese. From China come large quantities of eotton and silk-manufactured goods, tea, and porcelain ; and among other artieles may be mentioned opium, paper, potatoes, powder, medieinal plants, petrolenm, paints, wines and liquors, \&e., while rice, salt fish, salt, mudyed cotton, fish-oil, mushrooms, \&e., are sent abroad, the total amount of exports from the Port of IIaiphong during eight months of $1975-6$ being 198,914 taëls ( 72 taëls equal to about $£: 0$ ).

The Anam arryy is said to number about $150,000 \mathrm{men}$, chiefly recruited from CoehinChina, Tonguin loyalty not as yet being sufficiently established to allow the Government to risk reeruiting in that populous part of the realm. The Grand Marshal who commands the army is personally responsible for the citadel of Huce. Formerly there was a Department of Marine, but no navy. However, it now comprises 7 corvettes, 300 junks, an old steamer, and some sailing ships presented to the king in 1876. These are manned by some 16,000 men, and carry about 1,400 guns of all sorts, some of them being chiefly remarkable from their antiquity and utter inefficiency as lethal weapons. $\dagger$

The elimate of the north of Anam differs much from that of the sonth. In the former there is, aecording to M. Maunoir, no really dry season. In December and January the thermometer falls to $43^{\circ}$ or $41^{\circ}$ Fahr. Summer lasts from the end of

[^50]April to the month of August, during whieh period it is exeessively hot, and tho coasts are frequently visited with typhoons and other storms. But, as a rule, Tonquin is healthy, though the same camot bo suid of Cochin-China proper, and especially of the French colony, the climate of which is extremely pestilent to Europeans. The country is eomposed of low alluvial flats, and the shores are everywhere fringed with mangrove-swamps, one of the most certain signs of the feverish malaria lurking in and beyond them.

The animals and plants of the region are much the same as those of the neighbouring eountries. The royal tiger was formerly met with in the hills elose to Saigon. The panther, rhinoceros, coea-nut bear, buffaloes, monkeys, \&e., are common, but the elephant the Anamese have not yet learned to domesticate. Their chief beasts of burden are the buffalo, with whieh the unhealthy riee-fields are cultivated, and herses. Birds of numerous species are found; among others there is met with about every village that long-legged fowl of ungainly figuro and monstrous appetite, which takes its name from the country, and the low damp region swarms with reptiles, frequently of a dangerous type. The vegetable products of the country are those usual to the tropies. The forests abound in fine timber trees, and as the people of Anam are essentially an agricultural race, rice, which forms the staple crop, is extensively cultivated ; but cotton, mulberry, sugar-cane, maize, betel-nuts, pepper, \&e., are also grown, and Tonquin is famous for its cimnamon. This part of the country also produces fuir tea, but the people of Anam generally do not know how to prepare it. Among other arts they nre skilful in inlaying work (p. 156). The country is believed to eontain much mineral wealth-including gold, silver, zine, and iron; eoal is found in places-and though the alluvial plains of the lower parts of the country cannot be expected to be metalliferons, $s$ et it is worked there. The natives are, however, exceedingly jealous of foreigners wishing to work their mines, and if questioned on the sulbjeet, always affeet ignorance of their existenee; hence the erroneous statements which have been hitherto made on the subject.

Inué, or Phu-tua-tien (p, 153), is the capital of the kingdom, and is remarkable chiefly as the seat of government and the place of residence of a variety of French officials, who really control the king and his ministers. The inner town, or citadel, is oceupied by " the government;" the outer by the general body of the population, whose numbers are estimated at from 50,000 to 100,000 . But otherwise it is a very tumble-down and by no means imposing eity. Hanoi, or Kecho (p. 148), the ancient capital of Tonquin, was once a place of some note, but though it still possesses a large fortress, which serves as a residence of the Viceroy, it is now fast sinking into decay. Even the eitadel, though, like that of Hué, built by European engineers, is falling into disrepair, and is so poorly equipped that were it at all likely ever to be attacked by modern artillery its surrender would simply be a question of a few days. The only other towns worthy of mention are Hai-lzoung, BacNinh, Nam-Dinh, and Minh-binh, all of which possess fortifieations of considerable importance; the castle of the latter town, though not on so vast a scale as the one which guards the capital, is yet the strongest in Tonquin.*

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## Cochin-China.

How "Coehin-chinè française "-or "Basse Cochin-chine," as it is sometimes calledwas acquired we have already explained. It is now divided iuto four provinces, constituted out of the six wrested from Anam. A great delta, with little variety of surface, and covered with mangroves in places where the water is absorbed by the spongy soil, much of it liable to overtlow by the rivers, in some places below the level of the sea, it forms an uninviting place of abode. Europouns, M. Maunoir informs us, never get aeclimatised here, and children born of European parents usually die soon after birth. Hence a race of Creoles is not likely to grow up in CochinChina. The native women have, however, large families, and Anamites, it is often noted, recover from wounds which would be fatal to Europeans even in their own country. The vast plain which constitutes the area of the colony is so slight in its slope that the tide ruus a long way inland, and so causes the borders of the rivers to be alternately coverel with shallow water, and bare fetid mud-flats, exposcl to the festering rays of the sum. Aceordingly in this, a land of miasma, dysentery is the disease which, as in many other warm countrics, shortens life. The majority of Europeans who die in Cochin-Clina succumb to it, and it is said that it frequently attacks them after their return to their native land. Cholera is also another epilemic of "Coclin-chine." On the border of the rivers fevers are very common, in the forest country the "wood fever" not even sparing the natives, who can live unharmed in the middle of the rice swamps. Yet the excellent commereial position of the country-only second in this respect to Singapore-as a depôt, on the one hand, for the trade of the middle provinces of Chiua, and on the other for Sian, Cambodia, and the Malay Istauls, renders it of value to the French Goverument. The colony cannot-owing to the circumstances mentioned-ever be a colony in the sense that Algiers is, but ouly a plate of trade, and accordingly the number of Europeans in the country is not much inereasing. In 1873 an official census put the entire population at $1,487,200-49,500$ of whom were Chinese, 82,700 Cambodians, and 1,114 Europeans, exclusive of officials and the garrison. The rest were Anamites, Chams, a warlike, gay, honest people of Arab origin, much intermarried with Chinese, Hindoos, endless crosses of whites with the natives, Anamites with the IIindoo, with the Malay, and with the Cambodian, and above all Min-huongs, a numerous and interesting people of mixed Anamite and Chinese origin. In 1876 another census put the whole population of the eolony at $1,525,836$.*

The capital of the country, as well as the chief "city," is Saigon. In reality it is made up of three quarters. The native town is devoted to a population of over 30,000 Anamites, Chinese, Malays, Tagals, and Hindoos. This is known as Cholen, and is at a distanee of three miles from the European quarter, with which it is connected by a good road and by the "Grand Canal"-grand, as Mr. Thomson remarks, in name only, for its banks are overgrown with rank weeds, and the waters at high tide

[^52]are moddy, and at low tide mul. The Amamese towns are far from imposing, and the people who inhalit them are as little prepossessing us their frail huts. They bear the reputation of leing the worst-built and least prepossessing of any of the matives of IndoChina. The Anamite's lace is more Mongrol-looking, his nose smaller nud liatter, and his person dirtier even than is nsual among a prople not fond of water as a detergent. The great width between his legs at the upper portien give his gait that enrions swaggering "theatrical" appearance which enables any one at all aecquanted with the Anamites to distinguish them among all the other races of Further Intia. It is also eurions that the distance by which the big toe in this people is separated from the other toes has servel-if any eontidence is to be phaced in the Chinese mmals-to distingrish them for untold ages; and the Sinetic elironicles affect to mention their neighbours as early as :2.28." n.c. I A vast portion of the poorer elasses live in boats grouped together along the river bank, so as to lorm a Hoating village, or in huts built on piles, which raise the lloor a few feet above the surfice of the water, int", which all the refuse is thrown. "The eapitalist, if he proposes to buikl a river residence of this sort-one offering every aulvantage to a large family in search of cheerful society, a commanding view of the stream, good fishing close at hund, unencumbered by tolls and gromad rent, and boasting a drainage system so unelaborated and cheap-has to launch out the sum of two dollars and a half, or twelve shillings, in the construction and decomation of the edifice. When built, the proprictor will let it on a reparing lease." In Cholen the Chinese almost monopolise the trade, and though many of them settle permanently in the coumtry, the majority return to China with the little fortune aequired by their fragal and not invariably honest ways. Choquan is a leafy village half-way between Saigon and Cholen, and the houses are so concealed by high helges and foliage that Mr. Thomson remarks that he haul several times passed through the heart of the hamlet before he was aware of the fact. The people here, indeed, love privacy; every prickle in the helges that encompasses their dwellings is, to use the apt expression of the keen observer whose notes we have been drawing on, a token that the family within wonld rather be alone. Life is, indeed, in these sultry lands, one long dolce far niente, only oceasionally interrupted by the mild necessity of getting something to eat.

Saigon proper-or the Government town (p. 157)-inhalited by the Government employes, is mainly built of brick, and possesses, among other institutions, an exeellent botanieal garden, and an interesting menageric of the animals of the country. When the French first obtained possession of it the town was little better than a fishing village on the right bank of the Saigon river, twenty-five miles from the sea, and even yet the place does not at first sight predispose the visitor towards it. A large town-ball and hotel in one is the objeet most prominent to the eye, while eafés, by no means very elean or comfortable, at which most of the residents seem to take their meals, are numerous. The streets are broad and macadamised with brick, and in two of them whieh run at right angles to the river are stone eanals, up which come country boats to load and unload. Oil lamps make the darkness of night visible, and wide gutters-whieh give forth evil odours -drain the surface refose away. But there are no publie squares, and unless the botanic gardens and the street faeing the river, and lined with double rows of trees, are to be considered

as such, public promenades are equally marked by their abseuce. With the exception of a most imposing pulace for the Gevernor, which contrusts strangely with its sumpounding of bamboo huts in the midst of a tropieal jungle, the public buildings of Saigon are in no way remakable. There are, of course, a number of Roman Catholie chapels, and to aid the propagunda among the natives a large numuery.

The trade of the place is not large. In 1576 the value of the imports of the whole colony was estimated at $61,511,000$ franes, and the exports at $60,420,000$ francs. But thongh there aro a number of French houses, the English and Germans are the most aetive of the Saigon merchants; and, as usual in these parts of the last, the real work of the place is surrendered to the Chinese, who keep most of the small shops, and in some cases are also traders in a very considerable way of busincss. The French merchant enjoys life as well as life can be enjoyed in such a climate, and tries to make a little France alout him. Hence, the cafi's, the promenades, cards, dominoes, and a general addiction to filding, dancing, and pleasure, enter more than real business into his daily life. The English and Germans-for the Amerieans were not at the date of the latest accounts represented in Saigon-on the contrary, toil ineessantly, hoping by harassing eare, and sleepless nights passed in devising schemes for money-making, to heap up that competence which will enable them to pass as many years of their lives as possible in their native land. $\Lambda$ s for the natives, all this simply amuses them. The masters of the country, however, make the native clicfs responsible for their subjects; and hence rebellions against the French nuthority are much less frequent in Cochin-Chiua than in most countries similarly situated-such as, for example, among the Chincse of Singapore, Penang, or the Malay Islands generally.

French is, of course, the languare universally spoken in the town, and even the Anamites use it in their intercourse with foreigners. In Saigon-though the childen of Europeans are usually sent home to complete their education, or, indeed, as soon after birth as practicable-there are in the town itself several good sehools, largely attended by the Anamite and half-breed population. There is always a considerable naval and military foree stationed here, and the police, who are chiefly Singapore Malays, are said to be very efficient. But though sorious crime is not markedly common in the settlement, private morality is at the lowest ebb, and is, perhaps, in some respects, hardly better than that which prevails in such Oriental settlements as Dilli, in Timor (Vol. IV., p. 25.4), though the politeness of the Suigon colonist-not always, it may be remarked, a gentleman of the best home-antecedents-glosses over the most revolting features of life in a country that has no domesticity, Mî-thô, Vinh-long, and Bassac are the capitals of the three other provinces of the same names. At Mî-thô there is a large citadel with a considerable French and Anamite garrison, a palatial government residence, with fine pleasure-grounds, and grod roads bordered with young cocon-nut trees. When Mr. Vincent visited the place a few years ago, there were several French stores in the town, a large briek eathedral in course of construction, two or three gunboats anchored abreast of the town, and "several important carringes in the streets." Vinh-long is another town with a fort, and of the same character is Chaudoc. Ha-tien, in the Gulf of Siam, is an exceedingly unhealthy place, almost solely inhabited by Chinese

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and Anamese. Ba-ria, at Cupe St. Jaeques, is a port chiefly of importance as a military station ; while Go-cong, in the midst of the great rice-fields to the south-west of Saigon, is the market-town of a purely ngricultural district, almost sulely iuhabited by Aumese.

The French colony in Cochin-China it would be unfuir to havo judged either by a Frenehman or an Englishman. The one individual, if endowed with even a modieum of the Chanvinism of his amiable nation, will be certain to speak in inflated langunge of Franee in $\Lambda$ sia; while, if politically indisposed to the Nnpoleonic dynusty, he might be inelined to anathematise Cochin-China as one of the evil works of the "Decembrizeur." $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ Briton, on the other hand, is apt to sneer at this attempt to run rivalry with us in the East. But no suspicion of undue leaning can attaeh to the opinion of Mr . Vineent, an Ameriean. Yet this intelligent witness deelares that Cochin-China is a failure, and is likely to continue so. After seeing "tho healthy, growing, and usually paying colonies of the British Empire in the East," a visit to Saigon "leaves a ludierons impression indeed upon the mind of an observant, thinking, and reflecting traveller." The Mekong River has proved useless as an outlet to the rieh districts of Southern China, the furious cataracts and currents rendering it impossible of navigation for any great distance; while, as the reader is already aware, not much better fortune has attended our efforts to tap the country by way of the Irrawaddy. The Songroi, whieh flows into the Gulf of Tonquin, is, however, naviguble for nearly two hundred miles, and may aid in promoting the longed-for intercourse with the "celestial empire."*

## CHAPTER VII.

India: Its Seas and its Islands.
Sagos, if not a pleasant place to live in, is happily an easy place to get away from. Steamers call in here from numerous ports east and west of it, and the traveller bound for India will have no difficulty in reaching some of the ports in the Bay of Bengral, either direetly or by calling in at Singapore. From Saigon the voyager may sail to Singapore, and thence round the "Golden Chersonese," with its island-dotted shore, through the Straits of Malacea, he will once more emerge into the open sea laving the shores of the mighty "land of the Ilindoo"-more familiarly known as India. He is among a strange people-black men of many races and tongrues and faith, "living under strange stars, writing strange characters from right to left," and whose gods are not those of the white-faced islanders whose lot it is to be their masters. But the Englishman is no longer in a foreign land. For some time yet, we shall travel in countries as little like Britain as any of those through which the reader has thus far been conducted. But wherever we go-among the languid millions of the great.

[^53]province of which Calcuta is the capital, shrough the country of the stem Rajputs, among the wild Goorkha horsemen, through the pleasant vale of Kasthmix, or even in the land of the lieree Afghan tribesmen-we shall hear our own tongue, and find the "Sahib" lord. But before setting foot on the continent, we may sail a little while longer among the islands that lie off India, in the Bay of Bengal, the Indian Ocean, and the Arabian Sea. The


first-named sea, into which we have emerged from the Straits of Malacea, is a great streteh of almost unhroken water. From Balasore to Chitagoner, the northern extremity of this ocean quadrangle, mensures some 2.50 miles: while from Cormandel to Mabeca, the southern side, is about five times that length. From India its waters receive tiur drainage of hatf of Sonthern Asia. The Ganges, the Brahmpootra, the Irrawatdy, the Mahmuldy, the Godavery, the Kistma, and the Cancery all flow into this great "hay," white the extensive harbors on its eastern side attract ships from every part of the world. The climate of the lay is wam, the exaporation in the hot season sometimes amometing to one inch per diem; but the north-east and sonth-rest monsoons-those modifications of the
trade winds-blow over it, often fiereely, whie the wild typhoons which sometimes sweep its low alluvial shores leave great havoe in their traek. But the Bay of Bengal is not an unbroken stretein of tropieal sea. The Audaman and Nicobar Islands lie in it; and at the sonthern exiremity, like the dot at the end of a point of extamation-! -lies Ceylon, a rich island colony, also under the English rule.

## Avdimay Islands.

From Cape Negrais to Ateheen Head, in Sumatra, there lies a broken line of


BTREET TIEW IN sAIGON.
islands, which point to the probability of this 700 mile eurve, dotted here and there with the Nieobars, the Andamans, and the small Preparis and Coeo Islands, having at one time been a bridge between Sumatra and $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{t}}$ dia, of which only these imperfeet fragments now remain. The Andamans are the chief links in this shatowy chain. The "Great Andaman" is, in wality, not one, hut four islands, end to end, but very elose together, and each measuring from eleven to fifty-nine miles in longth, the midule one being the largest. The Little Andaman is thirty miles long and about seventeen broan, and lies twenty-eight miles south of the others, but in addition to the land pateh mentioned, consists of a mumber of smaller islets in its close vienity. Seen from the sea, the Audamans appear like a number of low liills, densely wooded by a
thick jungle of tropical forest. Saddle Mountain, in North Andaman, is 3,000 feet in height; but southward the hills siuk, until they attain an inconsiderable elevation. The seenery of the islands is in places very beautiful, hut as a rule tho dense vegetation gives a sameness to the low-lying country. The shores of the bays are in most eases fringed with mangroves. Behind the mangroves rise palms, and in places, great forest-trees, their stems covered with climbers and their branches thick with clustered orchids. The west coast, however, has not, as a rule, such lofty trees; and the places where deciduous-leaved speeies prevail are, Colonel Yule remarks, of a "grey, sterile aspect during the hot season." Whole traets are covered with the Andaman bamboo, out from among which, here and there, tall forest-trees rise; while in other districts the arborescent euphorbias, screw pines, and a species of Cycas, "give a remarkable aspect to the coast vegetation." Further in the interior the jumgle is so dense that in places it is all but impossible to force a way, so that the geology of the country is very imperfectly known. Sandstone of a good building quality is found, and traces of coal are met with. The useful timbers are believed to be numerous, but as yet no trade is done in this reserve of Audaman wealth. The islands are too narrow to afford play for rivers; accordingly, though the general aspeet of the vegetation is, according to Mr. Kurz, Burmese, it has ' ${ }^{1}$ en altered by the scarcity of rumuing water and other unfavourable cireumstances. Malay types not found in the neighbouring continent also oceur, but there are no tree-ferns; and though edible fruits abound, the cocoa-mut palm, so abundant in the Cocos and Nicobars, is not indigenous here. Animal life in its ligher forms is not common in the Andamans, and, as might be expected, mammals are especially few in number. None of the monkey tribe, so abundant on the mainland, have been detected in the gronp; and, indeed, with the exeeption of a peculiar rat with spiny hairs, a small fruit-eating bat, and a diminutive pig, believed to be identical with the one on the Nicobars, there are no members of this group of quadrupeds of any note. Birds are more numerous; but, aceording to the late Mr. Edward Blyth, they do not approximate so closely to the species of India as to those of the Malay Islands, the Philippines, and in one case even to China. The swallow which builds the famons edible nests inhabits caves on the coast, and pigeons, woodpeckers, and kingfishers are numerous. Reptiles and fishes are abundant, both as to individuals and sprecies; and among the former is the turtle, whieh is imported in greent numbers for the Calcutta market.

But the Andamans are never likely to be eolonised by any visitors save those al the peculiar type for whose temporary home the Indian Government has selected them. In other words, the islands have since 1858 been a convict settlement, the ouly European residents being the officials, garrison, and possibly a stray white who may have "got into trouble." The climate is very wet, and, indeed, only four months' fair weather can be relied on. When the conviets first arrived, the mortality among them was enormous; but of late, owing to the elearanee of the jungle and the reclamation of the swamps, the health of the settlement has wonderfinly improved. It is also to be hoped that the presence of a civilised colony on the islands may in time react favourably upon the natives. These are of a very low type; and though the islands are only 590
miles from the mouth of the Ganges and 160 from Cape Negrais, in British Burmah, and have been visited more or less for 2,000 years, the aborigines atc to this day rude savages, who have never in even the least appreciable manner shared in the civilisation of the ancient empires off whose shores they live.* Their very numbers are unknown, the different estimates varying so widely as to have put them at all figures, from 3,000 to 15,000 . As early as 1789 the Bengal Government attempted to establish a penal eolony on the islands, but the settlement was finally abandoned in 1790 . But in 1855, owing to the repeated outrages by the natives on the erews of wrecked vessels, the scheme was again taken up; and though for a time it was interrupted by the Mutiny, the great number of prisoners which fell into the hands of the Government made its urgency evident as soon as that episode in the history of India had passed away. Accordingly, in 1858 the present colony at Port Blair was established. Cattle have been introduced, and large gardens have been laid out, in which mangoes, oranges, pommeloes, pine-apples, and jack-fruit are grown in great luxuriance. In 1872 the Andamans obtained an unhappy notoriety as the seene of the murder of Lord Mayo, the Governor-General, when on a visit to the settlement. They and the Nicobars are governed by a Chief Commissioner, residing at Port Blair. $\dagger$

## The Nicobar Islands.

Ser Mareo Polo tells us that "when you leave the Island of Java (the lesser) and the Kingdom of Lambri, you sail north about ly0 miles, and then you come to two islands, one of which is called Neenveran. In this island they have no king or chief, but live like beasts. And I tell you they go all naked, both men and women, and to not use the slightest covering of any kind. They are idolaters." $\ddagger$ But long before the day of the great Venetian traveller, the Nieobars are mentioned in the early Sanskrit writings, being elassed, like all islands placed in live, as the remains of bridges made either by the gods or "by the devils for some partieular purpose." Though in 1711 two Jesuit priests went to the islands to convert the reople and got killed, after a stay of two years and a balf), it was not until 1754 that the first settlement on them wan made by the Danish authorities, who in those days had a eolony in India, not far from where Caleutta now stands. Fever, drunkenness, bad officers, improper food, indifferent shelter, and a quarrel with the natives, ended the experiment in a couple of years. In $1 \boldsymbol{6} 65$ the Moraviaus landed; but in 1757 even these self-denying men, though supported by the Danish anthorities, had either left or died. Indeed, so rapidly did the missionaries fall vietims to the elimate that they had not time to learn the language, and in consequenee converted no natives. Still, up to 1507 (when England seized the islands, and held then up to 181.1), Denmark kept a small garrison there to play the part of "the men in possession." But

[^54]though this eestly faree was enaeted until 1531, there were no colonists on the islands; however, in that year another missionary attempt was made, and in 1837 this fresh depmrture also came to the old end. In 1815 a tiual attempt was made; but exeept that through it Dr. Rink, afterwards Governor of South Greenland, was enabled to write his aecomet of the islands, the experiment ended miserably in 1518 , and $u$ to 1869 the islands were

a blabock chmage in cochin-china.
without a master; for even the long-suffering Danes had tired of the faree of keeping their flay floating in a region which it was evident they coud never make any use of. But the frequent outringes committed on scamen eompelled the Goverument of Bengal to take over the islands; and in 1869 they were affiliated to the Port blair Penal Settlement of the Amdamans. Sepoys, conviets, and building materials wero anded at Nancowry Harbour; and since that date perseveranee has been rewarded by the village now presenting a pleasant appearance, with its baracks, stores, horses, eotton plantations, elearances in the old pestilential sxamps planted with eocoa-nnt trees and flower and vegetable gardens. Cocon-muts and the oil made from them form the

## trees

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rhief artieles of commere with the matives, who, mofortumately, have acquired a faste for arrack, bronght from the Straits of Malacea by the small vessels which visit the nitands for commercial purposes. The Nicolarians are infinitely more intelligent than the Andamans, Mr. de Röpstorff tells us that they are great linguists. The ohl men talk Portugutese, the middle-iged men Jinglish, the young men Burmese, the boys


Ehemint plog ghing in cevion.

Hindustani, and everybody speaks Malay. This shows in whose hands the trade has becol for the last sinty or seventy years, and how it has changed.
M. de Räpstorff has a good opinion of the Nicobars. They consist of eight larger and nine smaller islands, and from their position are all tropical; but the femperature, though debilitating, is miform. The rainfall is about 100 inrhes per anum ; but, as in the Andamans, it varies mueh in different years. Tolomic aetion has left its frace over the whole of the intands, and the washing down of the soil from the hills has formed swampy phains here and there. On this allavinm the writer whom we have just quated describes mangroves as arowing close to the sea, and on the land, elevated
above high water-mark, serew-pine groves abound. All around the islands, more or less, a coralline allaviam has formed, and fringing reefs of coral streteh far ont into the sea. The Great Nieobar, the Little Nicobar, and the Katchall are of "brown coral formation," but the other islands are of volenie origin, and covered with a peculiar elay, full of minute shells, sharks' teeth, and whales' bones, proving that it must have been formed in the deep sea. The "brown coral formation" of Rink supports a luxurions jungle down to the very edge of the sea, while tho islands of elay on volcanie rocks are only covered with high, useless " lalang" grass, which is fringed towards the sea with jungle. The coralline alluvium is covered with cocoa-nut trees, but the interior of each of the southern islands is still a terra incognita. "The jungle is high, and diffienlt to get through, interwoven with rattan and thorny creepers; and thongh magnifieent to look at, it is very unhealthy. Into it no ray of light penctrates through the massive foliage of the giant trees; and without light no flower thrives." The colonisation of the Nicobars by the British has been more suecessful than the Danish attempts, in so far that proper stores, houses, \&e., have been provided ; but almost every fresh arrival has to modergo that seasoning operation which takes the form of catching an obsinate and dangerons jungle fever. "If," writes M. de Röpstorff, "once Government suceeeds in making its little penal settlement healthy, settlers from Penang will not be wamting, and the place will soon thrive, for it lies in the highway of all the trade of lengal. In this bay terrible hurricanes often meet the ships, and there is no harbour which could offer a better shelter than Nancowry. It is sheltered from all winds, and can be cutered from the west or east. It could easily be provided with doeks, as there are deep and sheltered bays. The coeon-muts which abound would offer the settlers something profitable to commence with, but the best profits would be from growing cotton and spiees. The edible birds'-nests, which the Chinamen prize, would at once bring in a little revenne; and the gramo in the subterranean caves of Katehall would be valuable for manure. There is not enough for exportation, but it would be uscful to local purposes. The cotton grown at the Nicobars has been reported upon, and it appears that it is better than any Indian cotton. Every fruit phanted there has sueceeded well, and we know from the Danish settlement that spices thrive well. Hill paddy (rice) gave a very good erop in 1872, when it was experimentally grown. Building materials are plentiful; and I think it is only a question of time when the Nicobars will become a flourishing colony, and though one of the latest, perhaps not the least jewel in IIer Majesty's erown." So little are the Nieobars known that it is only recently that the rumour has been verified that in the interior of the Great Nicobar there lives a tribe, not of Papman or Negrito owigin, as are the Nicobarians at large, but of Mongolian race.*

[^55]
## Ceylon.

The voyager who approaches Ceylon from Jurope nsually sights it near break of day. 'The north-east monsoon is blowing, and Adan's Peak, 7,two feet high, towering majestically above the other lofty mountains of which it forms a part, is generally visible; but the fleeey clouds which frequently hang around the summit conceal the cap of the boly mount of the Buddhists from view, thongh at other times it may often be seen sixty miles from land, looking at that distance like a pilhur of suoke. But the eantions mariner, as he nears the const of this famons island, gives the north-west'shores of it a wide berth, for they are beset with shoals, saulbanks, rocks, and reefs. Some of these, like Alam's Diridge and the Island of Ramesernm, almost brilge over Palk's Strait, which separates Ceylon from India. 'The west and sonth coasts are low, and fringed with cocoa-nut trees, which grow down to the water's edge, and impart to the island the beautiful appearanee for which it is so justly celebrated. However, from loint de Galle (p. 164) to Trincomalee the shores are bold aud precipitous, The ample vegetation which is characteristic of the eonsts we have left is no longer found; a few dangerons rocks dot its shores, but the mariner may fearlessly approatch this side of the island, though he will miss the "back waters" and inlets of the sea which on the south and west afforded so many useful hartbours for small eraft. The island is noted for is loveliness, and the numerous writers who lave expatiated on its charms have in no degree exaggeratod them. It would be impossible to do so; for though some of their data will not bear critical examination, in other respects they fail to come up to the reality. The eye of the voyager, wearied with the monotony of sea, tired of green waves and "barren foam," lights with relief' on the varied expanse of verdure spread out before him, and listens with something like plensure to the unwouted boom of the surf breaking on the flat beach, and sending its spray up to the very roots of the cocoa-nut trees. Colombo being an open roadstead, vessels must anchor at a considerable distance from the shore; but if the ship cannot come to them, the Singhalese come to the ship. Canoes and boats soon surround her, and up her sides clamber theia erews, until the deck is covered with black, wellproportioned, but withal rather makel coolies. In the harbour itself the various native craft surrounding the new arrival supply abundant material for observation. Here is a Singhalese vessel, ark-like in form, and roofed over with thateh, which intensifies its domestic appearance; alongside it a Coromandel dhoney and a loombay petamar; while, crossing and re-crossing the harbour, are cargo-loats heaped with lading for the vessels, "their swarthy rewers stimulating each other by a monotonous kind of chant; and the traveller lands amidst all the stir ant confusion of an active commerce-crowds of coolies and bulloek-earts, and piles of merchandise, rice, coffee, nil, and cinnamon." Ashore, the spectacte, especially to one coming from a long royage, is still more pleasing. The landing-place at Colombo is very unlike the wharves in most ports with which the mariner is aequaintel. Tulip-trees grow around the jetty and on each side of the principal strects, affording not only an agreable shade from the tropical sum, but giving a garden-like appearance to the place, "their green leaves
contrasting vividly with the peenliar red hue of the roals, one of the first tisings that attracts the eye of a stranger."* This "utmost Indian isle" of the old geographers has also been long eelebrated for the aromatic odonrs which are supposed to herald it afar oft. Its "spicy breezes" ure, indeed, stoek allusions with the poets who refer to Ceylon, the belief with these gentlemen being that becanse the island prodnees spiees


NEW OF POINT DE GALLE, CEYLON.
the winds which blow over it most neecssarily be impregnated with their perfumes. No doubt there is a certain odour in the air of the tropies-this the writer can confirm from his personal experience-just as there is in a pine-forest or on a Highland moor. But this has been much exaggerated; the only ones which at all correspourl to those described by the writers-who have not visited Ceylon-are the overpowering perfumes exhated by the lemon-grass (Audropogon), by the honey-scented nilla, and by

[^56]
map of lower india and ceylon.



Photographic


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the coffec-plantations, which when in full blossom send forth a jessamine odour. The cinnamon, however, exhales little seent until the leaves are crushed in the hand.

The low level of tho coast-line gives the palms which eneircle it the appearance of rising out of the ocean. But this level zone encircles a loftier region on the east, sonth, and west, extending inland from thirty to eighty miles, and forming a pieturesque assemblage of hills, of whieh the must prominent, though not the loftiest, is Adan's Peak. This pre-eminence is elaimed by ledru-talla-galla, 8,295 feet in height, while there are two other mountains which surpass Adam's l'eak in altitude, though in sanctity it maintains a dignity which none of them ean pretend to. In Adam's Puak is a hollow which has the happy distinction of being equally reverenced by all the prevailing religionists of the island. The Brahmins declare that it is the footprint of Siva, the Buddhists that Budhha made it, the Mahummedans that it is the work of Adam, while the Clristians are divided in opinions between the elains of St. Thomas and the eunueh of Canlace, Queen of Ethiopia. Hence pilgrims crowd the mountain at certain periods of the year. The footprint is covered by a roof, and the superstition of the devotees administered to by priests, who live in a monastery half-way up, but daily attend the shrine on the summit. Mareh is the favourite season for the climbing pilgrimage-one, moreover, which is not devoid of danger, and has to be aided by chains riveted to the rocks at eritieal places, and fabled to have been placed there by Alexander the Great. In addition to money and other gifts, the worship at the summit consists of offerings of rhododendron flowers and various invocations. Nutwithstanding the varions religions of the pilgrims, they agree to differ about the origin of the footprint, and onee there, get along without diseorl of any kind, the awe which the saered spot inspires, and the sublimity of the view from the summit, apparently quelling in the pilgrims' beeasts the contentions usual among sectaries of such pronounced views. Indeed, the spectacle from Adum's Peak is by general concensus one of the most sublime in the world. Sir James Emerson Tennent has very justly remarked that though people elimb many mountains much higher, there are few which present so unobstrueted a view over land, or tower so much over the surrounding mountains. "On the north and east," the author of "Ceylon" remarks, "the eye ranges over the Kandyan hills. Turning to the south and west are undulating plains of light and verdure, with rivers showing out at intervals in their silvery course, while in the extreme distanee the glitter of the sun on the surf marks the line of the coast. This grand view is frequently eelipsed by clonds or dense mists which envelop the summit, when neither land nor sky can be seen; the mountain appears to melt under your feet, and you feel suddenly lost in a cloud, without a footing on earth. The seusation whieh it produces is very peeuliar, and must be felt to be understood." The mountain region of Ceylon covers an area of about 4,300 miles, but the whole breadth of the island on the north, from Kalpitiya to Batticaloa, is an almost unbroken plain, covered with noble forests of many trees, from the eashew-nut, whiel deays a month aiter it is felled, to the ebony and satin-wood, which can alone resist for any great length of time the elimate and white ants of Ceylon. The latter inseet pests are ubiquitons exeept when the elimate is too cold for them, and in a few hours destroy every

The carance e cast, uresque Adam's while sanctity a is a evailing va, the Adam, as and tain at ition of at daily climbing iled by there by summit standing the footte sacrel elling in d views. he most ked that esent so ountains. over the ght and in the st. This summit, our feet, sensation nountain of the covered h inter t length iquitous
y every
vegetable substance within their reach. All of the mountains are covered with verlure to their summits; but the slopes of many of them, onee chothed with great forest trees, have been cleared, and turned into finely cultivated coffec-plantations. Among these mountains are some extensive plains, sueh as those of Horton, 7,000 feet above the sea. But as this splendid site for a sanitarium is at present diflicult to reaeh, that of Newera-Ellia, 6,240 feet high, has taken its place, the loeality being distant ouly 112 miles from Colon:'วo. Here the European, jaded with the heat of the coast and plains, where a single shect at night feels too much, may regain somewhat of his lost vigour, and as he sits by a fire, and finds bhnkets necessary, begin to get new life into his langraid, flablby limbs. He awakes after a refreshing sleep, and sees "the grass white with hoar-frost, and hears the voice of the robin and the blacklird near one's window. If an early riser, the new arrival takes a stroll before breakfast, feels the erisp grass and leaves crackling under his feet, expands his elhest, and inhales the pure air with a degree of delight only understood by those who have felt the magical change, returning to breakfast , 'th a sharp appetite and a vigour of limb almost forgoten. Clothing which makes one hot to look at in Colombo is here domed with pleasure, and we are glal to sit near a fire at breakfist and in the evenings." Since the increased facilities for travel Newera-Ellia is yearly visited by numbers of Europeans, and the place is fast becoming a Singbalese Simla, or an insular represe.atative of one of those samataria in the Neilgherry Ilills to which the jaded Indian flees during the "heats." Many Euglish flowers and vegetables grow to perfection; and though wheat and other cereals have not succeeded very well, potatoes are grown in sueh quantities, in spite of the introduction of the potato disease, as to have become a considerable source of profit. Sir Samuel Baker, who, prior to the days when he attained the aeme of his fame as a traveller, lived several years in Newera-Ellia,* advocates European colonisation of the mountains of Ceylon; but, even with its comparative advantages of climate, the Luropean constitution, anywhere in a tropical climate, beeomes most frequently too enervated to be capable of much exertion. Ceylon eompromises an area of 24,700 miles, is 271 miles long, and at the widest part is $1: 37$ miles lroad-in other words, it is about one-sixth the size of Ireland, though altogether different in shape, being cone-shaped, with the apex of the cone pointing towards the north. The Ilindoo poets call it "the pendant jewel of India:" the more prosaie Duteh compared it to a ham.

However, in spite of Ceylon being so near India, it is probable that it has never formed a part of the continent of Asia as at present constituted. The Ceylon elephant is specifically identical with that of India, but at the same tine its varicty is nearer that of Sumatra than that of the continent. But in Ceylon we do not fiud the tiger, hywna, cheetah, wolf, fox, various deer, birds, \&e., common in India, while several of the Ceylon animals are wanting on the other side of Palk's Straits; and some of the inseets have more affinity with those of Australia than of India. On the other hand, the likeness to the fauna of the Indian Arehipelago is almost as superfieial, for many

* Raker: " Fight Years' Wanderings in Ceylon" (1855); Tennent: "Ceylon" (1800); Sirr: "Ceylon and the Cingalese" (1851), and the numerous other works referred to in these booke.

Malny forms, such as the argus pheasant (Vol. IV., p. 219) and the nininoceros of Sumatra, are absent. The gaur (Bas yuurus) is not now found in Ceylon, though at one time it seems to have been present. On the whole, the facts we are in prossession of do not point to Ceylon having ever been actually joined to Sumatra, nor to India, but to its having been part of a southern continent now nearly all submerged, and of which Sonthern India, then entirely diseonneeted from Northern India, was a portion. Though heavy rains usher in the changes of season, and swell the rivers to grea' dimensions, after the rains are over these streams fall back to such narrow dimensions that muder normal cirenmstances there are few rivers in the island which eannot be forded on horseback. The lakes are numerons, and some of eon:derable dimensions. Some of these, like those of Colombo and Negombo, are formed by the emboucheres of rivers having become closed by an accumulation of silt, \&c., without, and, to use Mr. Dickson's worls, "the rivers, swollen by the ain, foreing new openings for themselves, and leaving their ancient channels converted into lakes." The long, low embunkments of sand, both on the east and west coast-locally known as "gobbs"-are formed in this manner. They are olten several miles in breadth, and are covered with thriving cocon-nut plantations. There are also some lakes artificially formed, and which play an aetive part in irrigation, and in the system of eanals whieh the Duteh, following the natural bent of their genins, constructed in varions coast-lying distriets during their ocenpation of the combtry.

As the seasons of Ceylon do not differ widely from those prevailing along the shores of the Indian peninsula, it is needless to enter into this portion of our subjeet in muel detail. The sonth-west monsoon begins to blow along the south-west coast between the 10th and 20th of May, and the north-east monsoon appears on the north-east const between the end of Oetober and the middle of November. But while the sonth-west side of the isliand is deluged by rain, owing to the moist breezes impinging on the mountains, the opposite shore may be suffering from drought; and not unfrequently, it is said, the opposite sides of the same mountain may be sulfering at the same time, the one from an overphus of rain, the other from having none at all. Owing to the proximity of the island to the equator, the length of the day does not vary more than an hour all the year round, and, as happens under these circumstanees, dawn and twilight are of bricf duration, and thrir pleasures consegnently little, if at all, experienced.

Coal, with the exception of a little authracite, has not yet been found in Ceylon, but in all likelihood it nwaits some future explorer; but plumbago forms a considerable item in the island exports, and the Singhalese have from time immemorial been in the habit of manufueturing rude tools of tine temper out of the excellent iron which exists in such vast g!antities in the western, sonthern, and eentral provinees. Tin, platinum, eopper, black oxide of manganese, nitre, nitrate of lime, salt, \&e., are all found, and, in some eases-as, for example, in that of salt-workel as a Government monopoly, to the not ineonsiderable benefit of the revenue, thongh perlhaps not of the matives. The soil of the ground is not uniformly rich, but there is yet a vast amount of conntry covered with swamp or jungle eapable of being cullivated. Agriculture is yet the chief cecupation of the natives; but it is evident, from the irrigation works which have been allowed to fall
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COCOA-NUT PLANTATION IN CEYLON,
into deeay, they have at one timo been much moro skilful eultivators than at present. Cimamon is indigenous, nud at one period formed the principul artiele of export, but coffee is now extensively grown, as well as tobaceo, cinchona, and sugar. Among other erops, tea bas been introduced, and promises to become a profitable plant. But cocoanut culture is among the natives the great "industry." A Luropean does not find this kind of farm a profitable investment for his capital, but to a Singhalese the cocoanut grove around his house is an independence. It furnishe all he requires for food, clothing, drink, and timber; and after he has lived sumptuously all the days of his life on the nuts and the sap, the trumk, hollowed out, makes a very comfortable coffin. Altogether, it has been ealculated that, apart from the area devoted to the Areea and Palmyra palms, the cocoa-nut culture in the hands of Europeans or natives oceupies about 250,000 acres of Singhalese soil (p. 169).

There are no native manufactures exeept of the most primitive kind, though the gold chain work and the imitations of gems are really very beautiful. For a "sapphire," hardly to be distinguisted from the real stone at first sight, a ragged native will calmly ask the fresh arrival, or by choiee the visitor who is just departing, from 400 to 4,000 rupees, and at the last moment joyously accept the fourpence, which is somewhat over its value. Though cinnamon, sugar, and coffee are all more important sourees of Singhalese wealth, yet the famous parl-fisheries of the island are most associated in the popular miud with its fume. The chicf banks are near Arippo, off the northern part of the west const, at a distance of six to twelve miles from the shore, but though of great extent, they vary in their yield. The banks are monopolies of the Goverument, who sell the privilege of fishing them by public auction. But owing to causes never elearly exphained, thongh it has been attributed to the migratory charaeter of the oyster (Mecleagrina margaratifera), the business is a rather preearious onc, altogether apart from the fact that the divers must run the risk of bringing to the surface many oysters which are of little or no vaiue for one which contains the precious pearl loose in its "mantle." Sinee the Government sold the privilege of fishing the beds, the oysters have been disposed of as they come ashore from the boats, with the result that the returns vary from $£ 87,000$, the highest in any one year, to $£ 7,200$, which was the net revenue in 1874 , though in the preeeding year $£ 16,000$ was derived from it. These are Mr. Diekson's figures, and give a fair idea of the fluctuating character of this source of Ceylon revenue (which is, indeed, so old that it is mentioned in a chroniele dating 300 years b.c.), though the writer is in error in believing that the beds are worked by the Government direetly. As soon as it is deeided that there will be a fishery, the privilege is disposed of at Colombo to the highest bidder. The purchasers of this coneession are generally Moors, Tamils, or Banian merchants, who now and then lose heavily by it. Sueh a case oecurred in 1814, when the calculations which the experts profess to be able to make failed so egregiously that the Government remitted one-third of the money to the renter. On the other hand, in 1857 the speculators combined to bid low. Aceordingly, though ouly $£ 20,309$ were obtained for the rental of the banks, an enormous quantity of oysters were landed, and the Government, in chagrin at being
duped, threatened to close the fishery altogether. Indecd, during the off-season a close watch has to be kept either by a vessel stationed on the banks or by guards on the shore to prevent poaching on these curious sea-preserves. The fishery commenees at a period varying from Mareh to May, but never later than that month, when the little villages of Ariplo and Condatchy, which are the healquarters of the divers, the speculators, and the notley crowd who hie from far nud near to profit by the money which for a few weeks is seattered so freely by those engaged in the business. The comutry abont Aripio is naturally very dreary. Water is scaree away from the river, which flows into the sea at this phace, and with the exception of a few scattered palms, a thorny, seattered jungle is the only vegetation, scattered behind the long sandy beach. Yet here from time immemorial have congregated for the one month during which the fishery lasts a motley multitude, numbering, it is said, upwards of one thousund, from all parts of Asia. At this season the author of "Ceylon" deseribes the vieinity as assuming the appearance of a vast fair. The dwellings are only temporary. Sheds, built of boards, palm-leaves, cotton-cloth, aud straw, rise as if by magic on the barren sand; and the region so desolate a few days previously is thronged by a crowd of samke-charmers, jugglers, dancing girls, fakirs, whose revolting features enable them to prosper on the sulperstition of the crowd, and the vagabondage of half of Southern Asin, the variety of whose costume, features, tongues, and roguery afford endless subjects for the student of mankind and the artist's pencil. On the banks swarm canoes and dhoneys of all sizes, most of which come from the opposite shores of India with provisions and other goods to supply the wants of the multitude who inhabit the impromptu bazaar-like town ashore. Finally, the strong detachment of Malay police and military sent from Colombo are absolutely necessary to keep orler in such a gathering.

The divers are prineipally Malabars from Cape Comorin, in India, but a few come from the Persian Gulf. They all wear amulets against sharks; and until reeently the Goverument had to maintain a Kadal-Katti, or "shark-binder," whose business it was to wpply the credulous pearl-divers with charms against their powerful submarine enemy. Inded, this functionary holds an office which is hereditary in his family; and the faet that in 1847 he was a Roman Catholic seemed, Sir J. Emerson Tenment tells us, in no way to have impaired the virtue of his charns in the eyes of his patrons. The oysters, when bronght ashore, are sold by the thousand to small speculators, who, in their turn, either take the risk themselves, or dispose of smaller quantities to still humbler adventurers. Indeed, few of those who camp on Arippo beach during the fishing season do not venture from a few pence to several pounds in the prevailing lottery. The emaller dealers usually open them on the spot, but most frequently the oysters are placed in hollow enclosures, covered with sheds, and fenced round and guarded to prevent pilfering. There they are allowed to remain until they rot, when the pearls, if any, are sought for. It is needless to say that the putrefaction of such an immense quantity of shell-fish fills the air with an abominable odour for miles around, and nurtures vast swarms of flies, which blacken the air, and cover every article of food, furriture, and clothing. At first this horrible smell produces nausea, but after a time the stomach gets accustomed to it, and some optimists will even declare that it sharpens
the appetite. It does not, however, seem to be injurious to health, for mortality is not higher at Arippo than among the erowded population of the native towns.

The trade of Ceylon is steadily increasing. In 1576 its imports were valued at $£ 5,562, \mathrm{SS} 1$, and its exports at $£ 1,509,595$, its commercial intercourse being chietly with India and Great Britain. Coffee, cimmamon, and cocoa-nut oil are the clief articles

singtalese dancer.

sINGIIALKAE CLOTII SELLEA.
sent out of the country; for, of course, the pearls, though intrinsically valuable, do not figure in Custom Honse schedules, and leave the island in small quantities and for the most part in private hands.

The population is reckoned to be over two and a half millions. Of these the Singhalese are by far the most numerous; but Tamils, Moors, or descendants of the Arab settlers, Malays, and other Asiatics are numerous. The European and other half-caste descendants do not number over 20,000, the actual European settlers not being over a third as many, while the Veddas and Rodiyas are wild tribes, about whom very little is known. The majority of the people are Buddhists
of the strictest type, but there are Sivites, one of the Hindoo faiths, in large numbers, Roman Catholies, Mohammedans, and Protestants of various sects. Missionuries have for long laboured in tho country, though, as the vast majority of the Christians belong to the population of luropuan descent, their efforts have not proved very snecessful. The Singhalese, it is needless to say, are not barbarians. Among them a high civilisation has long existed, thonglt mader their earlier native kings they had attained a loftier grade of eulture than in later times. In 1505 the decadence of native rule

" bunghbrs" gr ceylan.

gINGHALESE OF THE COAST.
began by the Portnguese settling in the country. There they remained until, in the course of the next eentury, the Dutch gained a footing, and ousted the "Portugals." The Netherlanders in their turn had to yield to the British, who in 1795-6 annexed the foreign settlements in the island to the Presideney of Madras, and two years later crected them into a separate colony. The inevitable, of course, soon followed. The last of the "Kings of Candy," having made himself objectionable, was taken prisoner, and with him ended in exile that long line of sovereigns whose pedigree could be traeed back for nearly 2,000 years. Since that date the British have exercised complete andwith the exception of three outbreaks, only one of whieh was, however, of importaneeundisputed mastery of the island. Under our rule the condition of the population has improved and the prosperity of the country increased. Roads are being rapidly made all over the
island, and 118 miles of railway have already been completed. The six provinees are administered as a Crown eolony by a goveruor, aided by executive aud legislative councils, the actual officials being members of the Ceylon Civil Serviec, a very hichlaly traiued body of "competition wallahs." The revenue was in 1875-a fuir average yrar- $£ 1,6+2,609$; and though $n$ delt of $£ 900,000$ was ineurrell for the construction of public works, it is beiug so ruppidly extinguished that at the end of 1875 it momented to only $£ 350,000$.* In addition to schools under various missionary soeceties, the Government muintains a number in the villages throughout the island, and pays large sums "on results" to those supported by private organisations.

There are numerous towns seattered over the colony, both in the interior and on the const, but the only ones of any size are Colombo ( $100, \mathrm{e} 1.0$ ), which we have already mentioned, Gnlle ( $17,0.09$ ), Jaffua ( 31,864 ), and Kandy, which, though onee the capital of the country, has now sunk down into insigniificunce. It is pieturesquely situated on the border of a small artificial lake, surrounded by wooled liills, at the base of whieh a road runs around the lake, and forms the fivourite evening drive of the inhabitants. Between the lake and the town there is also an esplanade, and in the lake a tiny island, on which in former days the Kings of Kandy kept their wives. The more prosaic Jnglish have converted this Agapemone into a powder-magazine. Kandy seems never at any time to have been an imposing town. The ruins of the king's palace indicate a mean building, while the rest of the town is made up of mud hints, the monarels having reserved the luxuries of windows and tiles for themselves. The temples, which were at oue time numerous here, are also falling into ruins-the most elegant now standing being that containing the "tooth of Buddha"but since the arrival of the English many substantial houses have been built, and the poorer natives have taken to the suburbs. Some of these parts of the town are densely crowdel, espeeially along the road to Peradenia, which is studded on either side for mile after mile with huts, bazaars, and gardens. The place does not bear the best of reputations for healthiness, and was formerly terribly infested by snakes. There is, however, a good botanic garden at Peradenia, and the fine Goveroment House adds a little loveliness to this duil, hot Singhalese city. In a elimate so warm athletic amusements must neecssarily be limited; but being an English dependency, of course a cluh is among its "institutions," and where ladies live there are, it is neelless to say, balls also, and the nsual pastimes which our race carry with them all over the world. At Newera-Ellia two paeks of hounds are kept: one is employed in hunting the great elk, whielh, though abundant in the neighbourhood affords but poor sport, owing to its habit of taking to the water as soon as it can; the other is a pack of harriers. The land-leeches, which are the pest of Ceylon, especially after rain, are very tronblesome alike to horses, men, and hounds. "Leeel gaiters" are worn by planters, and though efficacious enough in keeping off some of the species, one of the kinds (Hamadipsa Ceylanica) which frequents the damp jungles climbs up the legs and gets inside the clothes, and can spring on the passer-hy from among the leaves. The "rest-houses," which

[^57]are lonilt for the necommolation of travellers on the Ceylon roads, are often infesteel with them, and the writer whom I have alrendy so often quoted mentions that way harers have been driven out of the one at Kaigalle by these sanguinary amelids, aud that they have been known to draw blood from people in their pulanguin carriages. The railway route from Kandy to Colombo is one of the most beautiful in the world. Near the sea the line runs neross jungle and phans, but the latter portion gradually uscends, until the passenger ean peep out of the carriage windows at rich tropical vegetation, not only aronnd him but in the valleys below, and at "distant momentains shimmering in the glare and blaze of the burning sun." Colombo itself is a laro-pean-looking town, very pleasaut in itself; while from Woekwallu, a hill commanding the phain, and a favourite drive of the inhabitants, can be obtained a view over "puillyfiells, jungle, and virgin forest, up to the hills close by and to the mountains beyond, whieh it would be diflieult to surpass in the tropies."* Trincomalee is noted for its spacious harbour; and Galle (p. 161), though within six degrees of the equator, is healthier than most of the tropical stations, and has a fair harbour, though small, and with comal-reefs seattered over its entrunce. Point Pedro, the harbour of Jnffua, is an open rondsteal, with tolerable shelter belind the coral-reefs; but tho const is dangerous during the prevalenee of the north-east monsoon. $\dagger$ Altogether, in spite of the fungus whieh is preying on the coffee-leaves, the beetle that bores into its stem, the "bug" which makes its home in its bark, and the rat which eats its buds and blossoms, Ceylon is prospering fairly well. The mania for coffee-planting, which for a time threatened ruin to the island, and actually caused great loss, has now abated, and as other crops are being cautiously introduced, a rich future evidently awaits this tropieal dependeney-for colony it cannot really be called-of England. Ceylon has, moreover, dependencies of its own, though to these our sprice will only admit of a few words being devoted.

## The Maldives.

They are governed by their own Sultan, who, however, acknowledges his suzerainty to Ceylon by sending every year a present to the governor, a courtesy which is returned by the gift of a piece of red eloth. This custom dates, perlaps, from the period of the Chinese supremacy in Ceylon-that is, from a.d. 1430. The eurious vessels of the Maidives are sometimes seen in the Ceylon harbours laden with cocoa-nuts, coir, and cowries, or with dried fish intended for the Indian market. The cowries are, in their turn, despatched to West Africa, where they are used-but nothing like to the old extent-in lieu of money. At one time they were worth $£ 20$ per ton, but they are nowadays of less value. The coral soil of the Maidives is rieh, millet grows well, and banyan-trees, bread-fruit, tamarinds, and various other fruits and vegetables flourish. Cocoa-nut-trees cover them so densely that the voyager is quite elose to them before anything can be seen, and even then the view is only that of a forest of the favourite tree of the low-lying Atolls. The dominant raee is of Arab descent, but the other is evidently more or less

[^58]ahorigimal, thongh their origin is maknown, and beth are strict Mohnmmedians. The Saropenns have formed no settlements, for the proprects of trade are mot so brisk as to counterbalane the fuet of the climute being partienlarly mincaldhy, dropsical complaints and disorders of the bowels being very common, and purtienlarly futal to strungers (p. I 6 ) ,

## Cucos on Kemana lahinis.

This diftle group has been muexed by the Ceylon (ioverument. They were discoverell in 1608-9 by Captain Willium Kecling, of the Bast India Compmy's serviec, but the first settler on the gromp was, perhaps, Captain Ross, who in $15: 5$ came there, and whose son is, we believe, still virtual governur of these lonely tropical isles. There are a considerable number of inhulitunts on the ishands, but very few buropeans. Coennnut oil is the chicf article of trade, but cyelones sometimes desolate the islands, sweeping over them with such foree ns to carry trees, honses, grass-everything, beliore them. But the experiment of colonising the Cocos has been more favourable than might have been expeeted, since the elimate is temperate and is reported to be extremely healthy. When Captain luss first arrived the islands were for the most part covered with brush; but much of this hus been cleared away, and the ground planted with cocom-nut trees and other crops, with the result that a considerable trade is carried on with Java and the neighbouring conntries. Mr. l'orbes, who is a modern visitor, speaks of the lames as belonging to the Ross family. But this phrase is, we suppose, ouly to be understood in the sense that their present representative is the chief trader on the group.*

## The Laccadives.

The "Lakara-Divh," or " Humdred Thonsamd 1sles"-as the matives call them- werr discovered by Vasco da Gama in IH99, but at present they are attached to the distriet of Camanore, in the Presidency of Madras, to which they pay a triloute of about $\mathfrak{f i , 0 0 0}$ per amum. The population numbers over 7,000 , and are known as Mopliys. They are of Arahian origin, and, like the people of the Maldives, are all Mohammedans, though not of a strict type. The rearing of a small breed of eattle, cocoa-mints, rice, betel-muts, sweet potatoes, and other vegetables, are their chief oecoupations, but the islambs, seventen in number, are of little value. They are composel of coral, and henee are mostly low, with deep water all aroum! them, and on that aceome are dreadel by mavigators of the Arabian Sea (p. 16ä).

We are now within 1 jol miles of the Malalar coast, having skirted the shores of India from Burmah to near the entranee of the Persian Gulf. It is but a short way to the continent again, and of that portion of Asia which we have as yet not visited the most parl is India proper-that is, the Empire of Hindostan. Now, to deseribe India, even in the briefest mamer, would require-as, indeed, it has obtained-many volumes. Our space will not admit of as many pages being devoted to it; but happily this is not necessary. In another work, to which this is a companion, full deseriptions have been given of the native and other races, and in the Laglish language the information in

* "Notes on the Cocos or Kceling Islinds." by II. O. Forbes (Droccedings of the Rugal Gcographical Nority, 1870, pp. 7it-784, and 1880, 1. 49); Darwin: "Coral Reff" (18i4).
re disservice, - there, 'There Cuernweepiung a. But ve heen When sh; but ees aml and the ands as derstood
n- - were trict of $1000{ }^{12 r e r}$ Arabian a strict oes, aul , are of ater all (ग).
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India, olumes. ; is not ve been ation in ${ }^{l}$ Socitity,
rearand to the comntry itself is so whumbut and easily necessible, that the outines to which, in nceordance with our phan, we are restricted can be easily filled up by my one desirous of fuller intormation.*

## CHAPTER VIII.

## 1nma: Its Pusicha Featires.

I. fumiliar parlance we tulk of India, or Hindostan, $\dagger$ as that huge trimgle of Asia romprised in the area hetween the ludus on mes side mad the Ganges on the ofher, and


VIEW OF CAIE COMOMIN, THE SOLTHEAN HOLNT OF INMAS.
hetween Cape Comorin on the south and the Himalayas in the north. In reality, India inchudes within its comprehensive bounds a number of countries widely different as to

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. JII., pp. 288-320, and Vol. 1V., pp. 1-118.
+ I must here, if possible, shich myself from the wrath of rival nomenclatorial sehools by at onco declaring for none of them. The Indian names will bo spelt in the manner most familiar to the greatest number of my probable waders, withont any regard to the fact of its being archniae or modern, right or wrong. I an afraid thet, spellow after the new fashion, some of the old places would fail to be recogrised.

183
their physical features, products, climates, races, religions, languages, and governments, and though the llindoos form a cousiderable propection of the people of these countries, it is almost needless to say that they are not the sole inhabitants of any large portion of a region as large as all of Europe, if Russia is excluded from the computation. Nor are the parts politieally, historically, or soeially one, though through the force of circmmstances they are, with a few exceptions, units in the British Empire. "Wide differences of race and ereed," writes Dr. Ilunter, "are known to exist, but the recognition is dim and speenlative rather than practically and substantially realised. Setting aside the Mussulmans and their laith, it is generally supposed that the inhabitants of India are, and for ages have been, Hindus; that the religion of India sinee the beginning of history has been the lindu religion; and that from time immemorial Indian society has been artificially divided into four classes, known as the llindu eastes. Sueh opinions hate led to a complete misiuklerstanding of the Indian people, a misunderstanding which warps our whole political dealings with India, and which stands as a barrier between our Eastern subjects and that new order of things, with its more active humanity and purer ereed, of which England is the messenger and representative to the Asiatic world."*

## Plains and Table-land.

From the twenty-fifth degree of latitude southward General Strachey justly eharacterises the Indian Peninsula as a great table-land, having its greatest elevation on the west, whers some hills rise to 8,000 feet or more, though the ordinary heights are not over half of that, and the general level of the table-land lies between a maximum of 3,000 feet and a minimum of 1,000 feet. The great plain of Northern India, lying between the Ganges and Brahmapootra on the east and the delta of the Indus on the west, and between the table-land of the peninsula and the foot of the Himalayan slope of the Tibetan Plateau, rises at its highest point to about 1,000 feet, and if its prolongation up the valley of the Assam is taken into account, is the richest, most populous, and most civilised portion of India. It stretches in an almost unbroken fat from one side of India to the other, and, to use General Strachey's words, "is composed of deposits so finely comminuted that it is no exaggeration to say that it is possible to go from the Bay of Bengal, up the Ganges, through the Punjab, and down the Indus again to the sea, over a distance of 2,000 miles and more, without finding a pebble, however small." India has, indeed, not unfittingly been called an "cpitome of the whole earth," so varied is its surface, so widely different the climates of its different portions. In the north we have mountains the highest in the world, whose peaks are covered with perpetual snow, and through whose valleys creep great glaciers, compared with which those of the Alps are mere puny iee-streams. Further south are fertile plains, sweltering under a torrid sun, and elose hy arid wastes and jungles, unpenetrated save by wild beasts or the rudest savages-wreeks of the prevailing barbarism whieh overspread the country when the Aryan race, from which most of the European nations are sprung, poured through the mountain passes from Iligh Asia, and gradually brought in a higher eivilisation, just as

[^59]tts, and tries, it portion putation. force of " Wide ognition side the dia are, f history ans been have led ch warns r Eastern er creed, the west, not over of 3,000 B between west, and pe of the gration up and most he side of leposits 50 from the in to the er small."
so varied north we tual snow, the $\mathrm{Alps}^{\mathrm{p}}$ r a torrid the rudest when the rough the on, just as
they, in their turn, were and are partially making way for a culture nobler still. lixclusive of the Malayan or Trans-Gangetic Peninsula, whieh we have already visited, Mr. Kurz, a well-known botanist, has divided India from a physical point of view into three main regions:-(1) The Himalaya, extending from Kashmir to Bhotan and Clittagong; (2) The Peninsula with Ceylon, stretching as far north as the table-land extends; and (3) The Great Plain between, the homs of the Hindoos, or Hindostan proper.* The Himalaya is in reality not a mountain range, as it appears on the map, but a mountain region, and, as Mr. Markham has pointed out, in his masterly deseription of its physieal features, is composed of three great culminating chains, running more or less parallel to each other for their whole length, from the Gorge of the Indus to that of the Dihong. Between the inner and the outer range lies for the most part the lofty region of Great Tilet, already deseribed ( pp . 101-111), and most of the rivers of Northern India take their rise in the central chain, and run through its length. The Karakoum lange is the mame given to the western section of the most northern and inner of the Himalayan chains. Its valleys are blocked by vast glaeiers, and among its peaks is one 28,000 feet above the sea, while some of its passes are 18,000 and 19,000 feet in height (p. 180). The eastern seetion of the Northern Range forms the natural boundary of Great Tibet, and, like the western part, has lofty peaks, one being 25,000 feet high, while the Gangri "Knot" of the libetans-a name Mr. Trelawney Saunders has proposed for the whole range-is 22,000 feet above the sea. The Central Range is very little known, but the Southern Ilimalaya, with its stupendous peaks, has been more studied by travellers in this wild region. It averages ninety miles in breadth, the culminating points being from 10,000 feet to 29,000 feet above the sea level. In fact, the character of the Himalaym slope is a perpetual suceession of vast ridges, with narrow intervening glens, and open valleys, such as that of Nepal, are very rare. $\dagger$ This Central Range is divided into three longitudinal zones, each varying in products and elimate according to its distance above the sen level, the temperature diminishing $3^{\circ}$ and $32^{\circ}$ Fahrenheit for every thousand feet of aseent, while every movement towards the west or north-west "brings the traveller into a dryer climate, and takes him farther and farther away from the line of the rainy monsoon. In ascending the gorges, from the terai [or lowest zone], to the Alpine ridges, the traveller rasses through three zones of vegetation. In the lower region he finds the sal and sissu, banyans and peepuls, bamboos and palms. The central slopes are clothed with oaks, ehnctnuts, magnolias, laurels, rhododendrons, cherry and pear-trees, thorns, ashes, and elms; auu the upper region is that of jumipers, larches, yews, poplars, dwarf rhododendrons, hollies, birches, and willows." The animals also vary in a similar manner, aceording to the zone of altitude; and altogether the great Himalayan mountain region-2,000 miles in length and from 100 to 500 miles in breadth-bas exercised a remarkable influenee, not on the elimate, but on the peopling and civilisation of Asia. The bighest elevations of the llimalayas are of course ineapable of nourishing animal life, but in the lower valleys live lardy races of mountaineers who havo from time immemorial maintained an independent existenee,

[^60]
viEW IN the western himalayag.
while the languid dwellers in the lower plains, enervated by heat and luxury, have again and again sucemmbed to the conqueror.

The sub-Ilimalayan countries cousist of Kashmir, Gurwhal, Kumaon, Nepal, Silkhim,
and Bhotan, all of which are hilly regions, with a cool cl!mate and vegetation of the temperate zones. The Terci, or great Indian swamp, a belt five to twenty-five miles in breadth, separates these countries from the Plain of India (p. 178). This terai, though exeeedingly fertile, is very malarions, at least from April to October, and at that season is abandoned even by wild beasts, while most men shun it as a permanent plaee of abote at all times of the year. The villagers in the vieinity speak of it with bated breath as "Mar"-i.c., death-and the only people who dare permanent residenee in it are tho Taroos, a squalid, feebly-formed, truthful raee, whose existence is a standing physiologieal miracle. Great forest trees cover it, innamerable wild animals haunt it, and altogether the terai forms a marked barrier between the races of the sub-Himalayan countries and those inhabiting the plains. It is not on!y a dividing wall between the cool uplauds and the hot lowlands of India, but is a narrow strip, the people on one side of which are shat off, owing to their difference of language, from those living on the other side.

The Plain of the Indus, Bralmapootra, and the Ganges, stretehing right aeross Indir, we have alrealy alluded to. It is not only one of the richest but one of the finest-watered regions in the world. Thronghoat this rieh alluvial flat the Ganges and its endless tributaries ramify in a fertilising network, making the great Province of Bengal, which is included in it, the most popmlons portion of all India. Bahar, the Doab, Oude, Rohilennd, are all in the Plain of the Ganges; and taking into aceount its eities, towns, villages, and teeming agricultural population, the regiun cannot hold less than $100,000,000$ people, or about one-fonrth more than the whole inlabitants of the Russian Empire, and more than twice as many as are at present settled in the United States of Ameriea. Crossing the Aravalli IIills, we descend on the other side of India into the more circumseribed but still vast plain of the Indus, a mighty river which flows into the opposite ocean. In this region lies the Punjab: south of this province for nearly five hundred miles stretch parallel with the river the sandy deserts of the Indus, and in its lower course the river flows through the unhappy land of Sinde. In addition to the countries named, Cutch and Gujerat stretch over the Indus Plain to the Arabian Sea; while between the river and the Aravalli Mountains is the Thur Desert, an expanse 400 miles long and 100 broad, ered with sandhills, among which crops of grain can only be grown in a very few spots in .e vicinity of the rivers or after the rains. In the Hindoo records it is deseribed as the "Valley of Death." Men cannot cross it on foot, and even the horse and camel often suceumb before they can pass its dreary wastes of sand, which, like the moist terai on the north, has ever acted as a dividing line between the races on tither side of it.

## The Ghauts and Backwaters.

The table-land of India comprises Malwa and Rajpootana, the home of a fine mee, who live in an atmosphere 2,000 feet above the sea, north of the Vindhya Mountains, and the Decean, or peninsular portion of Hindostan, south of that range. This vast plateau is enelosed on all sides by lofty mountains, between whieh and the sea are low strips of level land, from which the mountains rise abruptly by a succession of great terraces, or ghauts, to the table-land beyond. These "Gbauts," meaning literally gates or
passes, thas run parallel with the east and west consts of India, and hence are known as the Eastern and Western. On the land side they slope gradually to the table-land of the Decean, but seaward they show perpendicular precipices, at a distance varying from six to seventy miles from the sea, forty or fifty miles, however, being the usual distance. The interval is the maritime strip mentioned. To this region the south-west monsoon brings fearful floods of rain, and aids in forming the interesting "backwaters" about which so much has been written at different times. In the State of Cochin we see many of these curious lagoons. The Hat country between the Ghauts and the sea is elevated but slightly, if at all, above the tide, and may be said to be formed by the alluvial soil brought down by the torrents from the wearing away of the great preeipitous buttresses beyond. Hence the brooks which plunge over the Western Ghauts aro in their upper conrse fierce torrents, which carry everything before them, and in their lower s'..ggish, almost impereeptibly moving estuaries, black and unsightly in appearance, and more or less brackish in taste. These estuaries are frequently breasted by a lighter strip of ground, and by their union often form an inland lagoon, in one case-as in Coehin-120 miles long, and varying in breadth from a few yards to more than 100 miles, only communicating with the sea at a few places where the streams which form them flow into the ocean. The navigable value of these backwaters is great. The Malabar coast is thus furnished by nature with a highway which traverses its whole length, from Trivanderum to the ruilroad at Panany, except at one point, the Wurkallay Barrier, which, if cut through, would complete the inland navigation of this part of India.* The contrast between the rush of the bright mountain stream while its upper waters dashes over the Ghauts, and the dark, sullen character of its final course to the sea, is very marked. A correspondent thus graphically deseribes the scene. Alluding to the Sarda, he tells us that in its debouchere at Burrumdeo, down to Moondia Ghant, it is a bright, "sparkling, merry mountain stream, often broken into two or three ehannels. It flows through grassy glades and sissu forests, swells here over deep sunken rocks, and then forms a tail below a shoal of glittering gravel, which makes the fisherman's eye glisten as it recalls to memory happy days on the Spey or Findhorn. But here and there a backwater, still as death, runs back far into a ghastly swamp, where the water is never rippled, save by the silent plunge of the weird snake-bird or the stealthy waddle of a gorged alligator. Huge ungainly fish and bloated carrion-turtle glide far below the surface, round the skeleton roots of bleached and barkless trees-a phantom forest, lichen-shrouded. On the stark framework of bone-like branches sit motionless the gaping lock-jawed cormorant, with half-spread, stiffened wings, a bony parody of taxidermy, or the foul vulture, its livid neek smothered in fluffy feathers, like some shapeless Caffre kaross, the only sign of life a dull, deceitful eye. On a dead willow, stretching far over the inky pool, lies twined a python, limp and semi-rotten. The head is gone; the muscles of the neek, blanched and torn into strings, are langing a few inches above the water, jagged by resistance to the tug of the turtle teeth. Here and there seales have separated, and the glairy, sodden skin hangs flabby and ruptured. Can you believe that you are within ear-shot of a babbling mountain torrent, on whose

[^61]floods the mightiest tree-trunks are but straws-a torrent irresistible, ever living, ever litful?"

## The River System.

Some of the mightiest rivers in the world, and in Asia certainly the most interesting, are in India. The Ganges, the Brahmapootra, and the Indus drain the northern part of the empire. They rise in the Tibetan range; and, curiously enough, almost the whole of the waters of the high plateau of Tibet flow through British India between 95th and 75th meridians, the only part of the drainage thrown off to the north being, as General Strachey notes, that of the northern momentain slope. The Indus rises in a Himalayau peak 18,000 feet above the sea, and before it falls into the Arabian Sea, through a delta measuring 75 miles by 130 , it drains more than 400,000 square miles of country, or an area quadruple that of Great Britain and Ireland. The Cabul, the Attock, the accumulated waters of the Punjab, in the form of the Punjuid and a hundred minor rivers, combine to swell the great flood of the Inclus; but below its confluence with the Punjund, so narrow is the valley through which it runs that its volume decreases rather than swells, while the cireumseribed character of its basin prevents it receiving many affluents. Add to these circumstances the fact that the river here divides into a number of branches, some of whieh never return to the main current, but branch off, and, under different names, strike out new courses for themselves. Others, again, return much shrunken in dimensions, so that the decrease of the size of the waters of the Indus can easily be accounted for, though the observer does not at first sight notice this, owing to the current now becoming sluggish, and the tides running up to augm ont its bulk.

Yet, in spite of its size and length, the Indus is not of great value to commeree. Its channels through the delta are not all navigable, even at the lighest state of the water, for any save the smallest vessels; but its importance has been lessened since railways have permeated the country through which it flows. Kurrachee is the terminus of these lines, while Hyderabad, Sukkur, Shikapore, Mooltan, and other cities are united in their network, and the railway will soon cross the Indus itself by the bridge which it is proposed to throw over it from Sukkur on the right bank to Roree on the left, the resting-place being Bukkur, a rocky island between them. A still nobler river is the sacred Ganges, whieh, together with its tributaries, drains shout 500,000 square miles from the ice-cave where it rises, 10,300 feet above the sea, in the Gurhwal State, to where it falls, 1,500 miles away, through many mouths, into the Bay of Bengal. At Allababad the Jumna joins it, and in its course through the north-western provinees the Gumti and Gogra; and soon after passing the holy city of Benares into Behar the Son unites with it; and after Patna is left behind, the Gandak, from Nepal, adds its volume to the great river of India. The Kusi is the next important tributary, and by the time the ruined city of Gaur is reached the current has expanded into a mighty volume, and appronched within 210 miles of the sea in a straight line, though by the tortuous windings of the current the distance is much greater. It, however, soon loses its individuality,
and branches out into the varions months which, under different names, cat up the delta into a number of low, marihy, ever increasing or decreasing ishads. The man thannel is the Padma, and after being reinfored by the Jamma, or chief stream of the Brahmapootra, and numerons other additions from the hill country on the east, it forms the broad estnary of Meghan, which ends in the Bay of Bengal, near Nonkhali.


VIFW ON TME GANGES.

But this is only one of many such estuaries. The Hooghly, on which Calentta is luilt, is one of these, and between it the Meghna is the delta proper, which in its upper portion is rich and thickly inhabited, but on its southern borders by the sea is little better than a series of great swamps, seeped throigh by immmerable channels of the river. The sumbari-tree is the chief prodnet of this tract, which is hence known as the Sundarbans. The Ganges is well suited for navigation, but with the exception of the burv traffic along the varions chamaels below Calcutta, steam mavigation on the river has ceasea to be important, the great cities by its waters being now all connected by rail. Calentta,
up the e main eam of cast, it oukhali.

cutta is , in its c sea is mnels of n as the the burv s ceasent Calcutta,

Monghy, Patma, Benares, Allababal, wre populous towns on its banks below its mion with the Jumma, while Agra and Dethi are among the familiar manes of places on its

nhew of the ctiv of henambs.
upper waters. But the river itself, quite as much as the progress of railways, has determined the fate of the cities which from time to time have grown up in its vicinity. At ancertain intervals great changes take place in the bed of the stream, which alter the whole condition of the ueighbouring comntry. Islands are thrown up in flaces where, 184
a few weeks before, the river rolled, and, owing to the rapid growth of vegetation in these countries, are speedily covered with bush, which afford a shelter to alligators and the other wild animals of the region bordering the sacred river. 13y-and-by the silt brought down shoals up the space between the islands and the bank, until the current, dellected by the nowly-formed peninsula abutting into it, sweeps against the opposite shore, wushing into its flood a cultivated farm, a mile of forest, or a village of mud huts, or it may be entting out for itself a new channel far away from the old one. So frequent and sudden are these elanges in Lower Bengal that it is considered dangerous to erect any edifice of a largo or permanent character within the range of the river's action. Rajinalaal, which was formerly on its banks, is now seven miles in the back country, and the existence of ruined cities, long ago deserted of their commerce and population, attest the vagaries of the Ganges in former times. But apart from its character as a great highway for millions of people whose life will not for a time to come be seriously influeneed by steamboats or railways, the Ganges is a sacred river. Deo Prayag, the point at which the united currents of the Jabuavi and Alaknanda takes the mame of the Ganges, has for ages been a favourite place of pilgrimage, thongh Gangotri, near whieh the river takes its source, has up to this day maintained its popularity with the more devout Hindoos. Indeed, the points of juncture of the tributaries with the main river have all pretensions to sanctity. But even the deboucheres of the Gumti and Gogra are of sanctity very inferior to the tongue of land at Allababad where the Jumna flows into the Ganges, and to which every year thousands of the pious flock in poverty and misery, happy if, after praying and washing in the boly water, they can return to their distant village conseious that they have taken a fresh start in holiness. Finally, not to enumerate the numerous other places of more or less celelrity, Benares (p. 185) is everywhere celebrated as the holy eity of the Ganges valley. Its fame in Warren Hastings' time has been sketched in one of Maeaulay's most brilliant passages. "It was commonly believed," writes the famous historian, "that half a million of human beings were crowded into that labyrinth of lofty alleys, rieh with shrines and minarets, and balconies and carved oriels, to which the sacred apes clung by hundreds. The traveller could scarcely make his way through the press of holy mendicants and not less holy bulls. The broad and stately flights of steps which descended from these swarming haunts to the bathing places along the Ganges were worn every day by the footsteps of an innumerable multitude of worshippers. The schools and temples drew erowds of pious Hindoos from every province where the Brahminical faith was known. Hundreds of devotees came hither every month to die: for it was believed that a peculiarly happy fate awaited the man who should pass from the sacred city into the sacred river. Nor was superstition the only motive whieh allured strangers to that great metropolis. Commerce had as many pilgrims as religion. All along the shore of the venerable stream lay great fleets of vessels laden with rich merchandise. From the looms of Benares went forth the most delicate silks that adorned the halls of St. James and of Versailles; and in the bazaars the muslins of Bengal and the satins of Oude were mingled with the jewels of Golconda and the shawls of Cashmere." The Benares of those days still partially exists. It is still
the boly eity, but its Old World aspects are altered in so far that railways now run into it, and amil the crowd of pilgrims who have adopted that modern mode of speeding on an Old World crrand, jostle at the station the "pugareed" officials of the dominant race, and the noisy tourists who have come to "do" the sacred eity, its monkeys, its bulls, its devotees, and its ghauts.* India, however, does not change much. The traveller who in the last cold season glided down the Ganges might, for all the change he sees in the fundamental habits of the people, have been performing his journey a couple of centuries ago (p. 184). To read the narrative of Ralph Fiteh, one of the ealy adventurers in India, is to read the description of the river to-day. In 1585 he sailed down the Ganges in a boat, which was one of a fleet of 123 vessels haden with salt, opium, indigo, lead, earpets, and other commodities. The Brahmins then, as now, were performing their mysterions rites. The Hindoo women were bathing, and the men saluting each other with eries of "Rama." At Allahabad he saw naked mendieants. In those days they were quite common, though-and this is one of the few changes whieh time has wronght-they have almost disappeared from India in modern times. At Benares he gazed on the same bewildering world of temples and idols, thronged with endless crowds of worshippers, that meet the eye at the present time. But Lewer Bengal has vastly improved since the day when the pioneer of the English merehants wandered through Ilindostan; where now spread indigo, eotton, and opium fields was then a wide region "so beset with thieves" that, to use General Fytehe's words, " the jungle was safer than the highways."

The Brahmapootra is a less impertant, though larger, river. It does not extend far, for from its senree in the Tibetan platean to the place where it flows into the Bay of Bengal it is about 1,800 miles long. But the last part of its course constitutes in reality an estuary studded with islands, and formed by the union of the Ganges and Meghna with it, while its upper waters are still imperfectly known, and even some of its main tributaries have been only partially explored. In its current are numerous islands. Some of these, like Majnli, which contains over 280,000 acres, are well cultivated and inhabited, and on its banks, both in Assam and in India proper, are many towns and populons villages, though it is navigable only as far as Dibrugarh, and even then during the dry season only by steamers of light dranght (Hunter). The "bore," which has given the river a certain notoriety in text-books of physieal geography, is caused by the upward rush of the tide suddenly flowing through the passages between the islands which stud the estuary formed by the union of the Brahmapootra, Ganges, and Meghna into the great estuary mentioned. It is thus seen that India is cut up by three great rivers and their tributaries. But there is no exteusive region of the country which has not the benefit of water communication of a more or less important character, the

[^62]nomber of rivers, greater and smaller, which form a network thronghont it being much too momerous to describe, or even to mame.

## The Ilill Coestry.

In like manner, though the llimalays are the groat momain partition between the phains of Central Sxia and India, they do not constitute the only upland range of the latter comatry. In Sonthern India there are the Neilghervies, or Blue Momitains, which rise isolated in the midst of the surromaling plain to the height of over 7,100 feet, and extend over an area of bol sumare miles. They form the greater samitarium for the neighbouring region. Ootacmmul is, inded, to Madras what Simh is to Calenta, and Mahatmeshwar to Bombay-the breathing-plate where the languid frames of the dwollers in the low, moist plans ean get reeruited for the labours of life. It is wet, but cooler even than its Limalayn rivals. The Palnai Ilills, still further south, form another retreat of the same nature, while the Shevarai llills, which are part of the Eastern Ghats, alford a cool holiday home for those who do not care or are untit to undertake the journey to the Neilgherries. The Sewalik range-fanous for its fossil remains-rise to the height of 3,000 feet, the Kala, or Salt Monntains, to the height of 2,500 feet, the Aravilli, forming the division between the basins of the Indus and the (ianges, eulminate in Mount Abu, 5,000 feet high, the Kattywar IIills, with peninsula of the same name, are lower, the bundeleunds lower still, but the Rajmahals rise in places as high as 7,000 lieet. The Vinchya Mountains, which cross India and separate its sonthern or peninsular portion from llindoston proper, nowhere exceed 6,000 feet, but the Suliman Momentains rival the Himalayas, of which they may indeed be considered a part, in the grandeur of their peaks. The Satpura range is a spur of the Vindhya, while the Western Ghauts, on which are situated the Mahabaleshwar Sanitarinm, are the comerpart of the eastern oues on the opposite coast, which we have already described (p. ISI).

## Climate.

This, of course, varies greatly in different parts of a region so immense. In the extreme north the difference between summer and winter does not exceed $40^{\circ}$, but as the traveller proceeds south he finds the difference less and less, until it is about $15^{\circ}$ at Calcutta, and only $10^{\circ}$ or $20^{\circ}$ at Bombay and Madras. But these figures very imperfeetly explain the character of the elimate of India, as it is dependent on different cireumstances than mere heat or cold. In all parts of the country there are three more or less pronounced seasons-the liot, the rainy, and the cold.

These seasons, however, vary in different parts of the country. As a rule, the first usually lasts from the middle of March to the middle of June, but the heats in the moist plains of Bengal, where for weeks life is passed in a vapour bath, and the same season in Norti-Western India and the Punjaub, where the hot dry winds raise the temperature to $120^{\circ}$ in the slade, are the same, but with a world of difference. This season in the low lands of the interior is unhealthy, but on the coast the cool breezes temper it, while on the higher hill-stations existence is, during the "heats," most endurable.


The rains-an ern in the Indian social ealendar-usually begin in the midilie of June, and though the nmount of ruinfull varies, continue with little intermission till the end of September. At this period of the year, also, the melting snow on the high mountains causes the rivers to fill, so that inundations are frequent in certain parts of the country. The cold seasou falls in November, Deeember, and January. In the northwest provinces and the Punjaub water is, during these months, often frozen in the shallow pools dhring the night, and there is hoar-frost in the moruing. The residents feel the invigorating eold until the sun warms the air, and even welcome the unwonted sight of a fire. In Lower Bengal and Southern India the cold season is not only pleasant, but owing to the buoyaney of the air under a clondess sky, lifo is "something more than enjoyable." At the hill-stations the cold is really intense, and the snow deep and of long duration. It thus appears that the old ideas about the universally bud elimate of India is erroncous. The plains are certainly during a portion of the year unhealthy, and European children caunot well be reared there. But the hills and valleys of the Himalayas and other ranges are cool and salubrious, and suit the European much better than some of the hotter parts of Australia. Here tho offspring of pure Europeun parents do not degenerate, while List Indians, or Eurasians, a mixed ruee, rapidly increasing in India, rather improve than otherwise in these bracy upland regions.* There seems, therefore, no reason why European colonies, of soldiers and civilians whose term of serviec have expired, should not be established in these valleys or in the lovely Vale of Kashmir. Such settlements would be infinitely to the bencfit of the country and of the natives, and would seeure our bold on India as really a British colony, instead of being, and as under the present system it must continue to be, a great camp of soldiers, officials, and adventurers, who are in haste to make in a few years the fortune which will enable them to spend the rest of their life thousands of miles away from the people among whom or by whose industry and custom it was earned.

## Mineral Wealth.

We are so accustomed to associate India with her vegctable riches that we forget that within her bounds she possesses wealth of coal and ores whieh, did the soil not yield an ounce of any other product, would give her a high place among poor countries with the potentiality of riches. Many years ago, an eminent geologist, fond of prophesying even when he "didn't know," declared that he would undertake to eat every bit of coal which could be found in India. If so, his appetite is Gargantuan, otherwise his digestion must long ago have been seriously disordered, since extensive coal-fields have been discovered between the Ganges and Godavery, and which differ little geologically from the carboniferous beds of England. Coal has been worked for over twenty years, and is used on most of the Indian railways. The precious stones of India, in spite of the diamonds and the gems of Golconda being now chiefly historical, are still a source of wealth to the sceker in the creviees of the rocks or among the gravels of the river beds (p. 192). Opals, amethysts, garnets, cornelians, and other gems are not unfrequently found. Irdn exists in many places, particularly in the Madras Presidency, while aiver, galena, and

[^63]other ores are either found in sufficient abundanee to be worked, or afford such "indication" as to lend hopes of great things in the future. Gold is, however, the metul which lus of late years attracted most attention in India. In grenter or less quantities it has been washeel from time immenorial out of the sand and gravel of many of the rivers. But it is only compuratively recently that the quartz reefs which form the origimel souree of the driit groll in the streams have been detected. The result has been something very like a panic, anl only in March, 1880, the rush for an allotment of shares in one of the compunics newly formed in Loudon must have reminded thoso who witnessed it of the strugrle romad the office door during the days of the South Sea Bubble or of Law's Mississipi Scheme. The principal district is in the Wynaad country, and has not uunaturally been the subjeet of much inflated talk by those interested in exaggorating the importunce of the mines. Mr. Brough Smyth, who examinel them for the Government of India, may, however, be accepted as a trustworthy witness. His report is that the gold-bearing rooks are found at a great many localities, seattered over 500 spluare miles of country. In former times this gold was worked at many places by the natives, who sluiced the golden carth and gravel ovor extensive arens, but of recent years the native workings have been on a very small and unremunerative scale. Though at intervals from 1832 to 1845 attempts were mado to work the reefs, the speculation proved umprofitable, most probably owing to unsuitable applianees and improper supervision; for the 137 assays which he gives proves the rock to be of a "paying" description. If we omit the altogether exeeptional sample from "Wright's level," which gave 20.4 oz. per ton, and the "picked specimens" from the same workings, which gave $25 \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} \mathrm{oz}$. per ton, we get 88 samples yielding an average of 1 oz . 8 dwts. 22 grs , of gold per ton.

Mr. Smyth says that gold is almost universally distributed throughout the soils and quartz veins of the Wynaad. It occurs also in the sands and soils both on the east, west, north, and south. In South-east Wynaad, on washing a few dishes of the surface-soil anywhere, speeks of very fine gold will te found. In the vieinity of the reefs rather heavy gold is often got by sluicing; and if a suitable spot be selected, the native miners will obtain, even by their imperfeet methods, sufficient gold to remunerate them for their labour. The character of the rocks, the nature of the climate, and the formation of the country have all contributed to prevent the accumulation of drifts such as are found in North-west America and Australia. There are here no "gullies" baving in their beds shallow deposits with a well-defined auriferous stratum, no "deep leads" covered and protected by layers of volcanic rock; there are only, as a rule, in the district now under consideration, "surfacing" and "quartz-mining." On the Seeputtee river there is an accumulation of well-roundcd boulders of quartz and gneissoid roek imbedded in hard clay and sandy soil, whiel may be regarded almost as a "cement." It is no more than the old bed of the river, which, owing to the "cutting back" action of the water, has lowered its level and left this drift on its banks. It is probable that, as in other similar cases, the "eement" will be fonnd in patehes on both sides of the river, in places which were formerly bends of the old stream. The bed-rock on which the gravel, clay, and boulders lie is at no great height above the level of the existing water-course; and the part of the drift which has been worked is about thirty feet in thickness. This drift, and those which are to be
found in the beds of the swamps, may be said to represent the alluvial duposits of the Wynaad. Some of these are probably rieh in gold, but it is only under favourable conditions that they could remunerate the miner. It would be extremely difficult and costly,


SCENE IN TIE DIAMOND MINES OF POONAH,
and in many eases almost impracticable, to drain the swamps by artificial channels, and the expense of pumping the water from a shaft would be very great. Still, if the lowest stratum should prove to be highly auriferons, it might be found remunerative to resnit even to pumping, eare being taken to earry off the surface water from the swamps by
sits of the favourable and costly,
annels, and $f$ the lowest e to resert swamps by


GATE OF ALLA-UD-DEEN KOUTAB, NEAR DELIII.
constructing races. Bulow the $W$ ynaad plateau and bordering on the tertiaries there are in the beds of the streams rather deep deposits of drift. At Karambaut the water-worn gravels and rounded bloeks of country rock and quartz are of considerable thickness. Below Eddacurra the bed-rock is covered with very reeent deposits and tertiary strata (haterite). It is not known whether the stratum immediately overlying the bed-rock is generally auriferous; but wherever the latter is interseeted by quartz veins more or less grold will be found in the disintegrated roeks.

In eoneluding his report, Mr. Brough Smyth adds:-"Gold has been found on the south near Eddaeurra, and on the north near Nellacottah, on the west near Vyteri, and on the east as far as Bolingbroke-that is to say, over an area of more than 500

square miles. The recfs are very numerous, and they are more than of the average thickness of those formd in other comntries. They are of great longitudinal extent, some being traeeable by their outcrops for several miles. They are strong and persistent, and highly auriferons at an elevation of less than 500 feet above the sea, and they can be traced thence upwards to a height of nearly 8,000 feet; near them, gold can be washed out of almost every dish of earth that is dug. The proportion of gold in some of the soils and reefs in the neighbouhood of Devila is large; and the comitry presenting the greatest facilities for prosecuting mining operations at the smallest cost, it must be apparent to all who have given attention to this question that, sonner or later, gold-mining will be established as an important industry in Sonthern India. Tho retardation of this event will be cansed, not by the meagreness of the resourees-they are large-but probably by the mistaken notion that wherever there is gold all the eare, all the forethought that would be deemed requisite in other pursuits, may be disregarded in conducting mining operations."

India, it cannot be too frequently dinned into unwilling ears, is not a rich country. It has the materials which might produce great riches, but its teemiug millions are poor, and a vast prortion of the country is quite as undeveloped as some of our newest colonies. Energy is not a marked charaeteristic of any great portion of the people. Goldmining, which would afford a clance of earning money quickly, would no doubt attract many. But as the future prospects of our Indian Empire must depend on some more stable foundation than the ephemeral lottery of a gold-mine, it is questionable whether the recant discoveries will be for good or evil to India. That they will prove harmless is, perlaps, hoping for the best.

## Animal and Plant Life.

The climate of India not being uniform, its fauna and flora are equally varied. The dry desert tracts from Persia to Sindh are characterised by life of one general type, while the regions of periodieal rains and ligh temperatures have in like manner certain features in common. But take India as a whole, its fauna is, if not peculiar, at least characteristic. Monkeys of many genera and species-some peculiar to the country -inhabit the jungles, and even the trees in close vicinity to the villages, while both inseet and fruit-eating bats are found in great numbers, and are of types not known elsewhere. The tiger has wandered into other regions of Asia, but India may be considered its true home. Civets, ichneumons, the binturong, two bears, many squirrels, porcupines, the Indian elephant, four speeies of rhinoceros, one tapir, several of the swine family, several genera of antelope, several of the genus Bos, numerous deer and chevrotains, and the scaly ant-eater may be mentioned among its better known mammalia. The birds of India are numerous and varied, nearly every order, except that of the ostrich, being represented, while there are several genera and even one family-that of the Lirrylemide-confined to the Peninsula.* The sparrow has followed our countrymen into the Himalayas, but song birds are exeeedingly searee. The rivers swarm with fish,t the jungle-as the number of people killed by them unhappily testify-with reptiles; while one of the least pleasant sights of Indian travel are the lazy, gorged alligators, which bask like luge lizards on the sands and banks of every river. The flora is, equally with the fauna, varied by the prevalence or absence of rains. The hotter and wetter parts of tropieal India, we have already seen, are distinguished by the same type of animals and plants as the Malay Peniusula (Vol. IV., p. 255) aud islands adjoining; but as we go westward from the lower ranges of the Himalayas, and the rainfall diminishes and the cold increases, the markel character of the flora ceases. The plants of the Upper Himalayas are very uniform throughout great tracts, and approximate to, and in a few cases are identieal with, the European Alpine species. The platean of Tibet is characterised by an assemblage of Siberian plants and by the presence of marine plants, especially in the vicinity of the salt lakes, at elevations of 14,000 to 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. In the hot and dry regions of the south-west plants of Africa, Beloochistan, and Sindh are feund; and as these sometimes

[^64]extend iuto the hotter parts of the country, General Strachey, from whom we take these faets about the Indian flora, notes that not a few common Egyptian plants are met with in the Indian Peninsula. Iueluding the Malay Peninsula and islands, Sir Joseph Hooker has estimated the number of species indigenous to the region under deceription at from 12,000 to 15,000 . In this assemblage there is a great preponderanee of tropieal forms, and illustrations of almost every family of plants. The dense forest which charaeterises the Malay Feninsula extends along the mountains of Eastern India to the Himalayas, and rises to elevations varying from 3,000 or 4,000 feet on the west, to 0,000 or 7,000 feet on the east. Northern India is distinguished by the presence of tree-ferns, which require less moisture and are better able to resist the high temperature and excessive drought of the hot months. In Sonthern India a connsection has been noticed between the plants of the Peninsula and those of Ceylon and Eastern tropical Africa. More espeeially is this observed in the upland species, many of the plants of Abyssinia being varied. general the same as those parts of India. "This comneetion," writes General Strachey, "is further established by the absence from both areas of oaks, conifers, and cyeads, which, as regards the two first families, is a remarkable feature of the flora of the Peninsula and Ceylon, as the mountains rise to elevations in whieh loth are abundant to the north aud east. With these facts it has to be noticed that many of the principal forms of the Eastern flora are absent or comparatively rare in the Peninsula and Ceylon.
"The general physiognomy of the Indian flora is mainly determined by tho conditions of humidity of climate. The impenetrable shady forests of the Malay Peuinsula and Fastern Bengal, of the west coast of the Indian Peninsula, and of Ceylon, offer a strong eontrast with the more loosely-timbered distriets of the dryer regions of Central India and the North-western Himalaya. There are no plains covered with forest, as in tropieal America, the low lands of India being highly cultivated and adorned with planted wood, or where out off from rain, nearly complete desert. The higher mountains rise abruptly from the plains. On their slopes, clothed almost exelusively with the more tropieal forms, a vegetation of a warm charaeter, chiefly evergreen, soon begins to prevail, eomprising Mongnolicicce, Terustremiacea, sub-tropieal Rosaceer, rhododendron, oak, Iler, Symplocos Laurineer, Pinus longifolia, with mountain forms of truly tropieal orders, palms, Pundauns, Musa, Vitis, Vernomia, and many others. On the east the vegetation of the Himalaya is most almendant and varied. The forest extends, with great luxurianee, to an elevation of 12,000 feet, above which the sub-Alpine regions may be said to begin, in whieh the rhododendron serub often covers the ground up to 13,000 or 14,000 feet. Only one pine is found below 3,000 feet, above whieh several of the conificre oeeur. Plantains, tree-ferns, bambnos, several Catami and other palms, and P'audanss are abmudant at lower levels. Between 4,000 and 8,000 feet epiphytal orchids are frequent, and even reach to 10,000 feet. Vegetation ascends to the dryer and less snowy mountain slopes of Tibet to above 18,000 feet. On the west, with the dryer elimate, the forest is less lusuriant and dense, and the hill-sides and the valleys better cultivated. From 8,000 to 12,000 feet a thick forest of deeiduous trees is almost miversal, above which a subAlpine region is reached, and vegetation, as on the east, contimnes up to 15,000 feet or more. The more tropical ferns of the cast, such as the tee--Cerns, do not reach west of

Nepanl. The cedar, or Deodar, is hardly intigenous east of the sources of the Ganges, and at about the same point the forms of the west begin to be more abundunt, increasing in number as we advance towards Afyhanistan." In India various millets, pulses, peas, beans, wheat, riee, barley, and maize are cultivated, in addition to mustard and rape, ginger, turmeric, pepper, capsieum, varions members of the gourd order, tobaceo, poppies, Sesamum (Gingelly oil plant), Crotalaria (Sumn hemp), cotton, Camabis (hemp proper), indigo, sugrar, coffee, tea, oranges, lemons of many varieties, pomegranates, mangos, figs, paches, vines, and "antains. The palms supply comon-nuts, jagrgery or eoarse sugar, and "tolly," and the forests abomd in line trees, though, owing to the want of the durability in the wood, the number of timber-yielding speeies are comparatively few. Teak is the best (p. 116), the sal (Shorra rolnsfa) ranks next, and among others may be mentioned the babool (Acaciu), toon (Celrela), and sissoo (ladberyia). The deodar, simply a slightly altered form of the celar of Lebanon, is the only Himalaya timber in ordinary use, but the sandal-wood and many forms of bamboo add their guota to the arboreal prolucts of Soathern Intia. Among the introdnced trees may be mentioned the Cinchona, or Peruvian bark, whieh, owing to the exertions of Mr. Clements Markham, has been planted on the hills of India, and promises to not only render the world independent of the rapilly diminishing supplies of this febrifuge obtained from South Amoriea, but to inerease the quantity available, and thus to cheapen a drug indispensable in many climates. The American malogany has also been planted, and, General Strachey eonsiders, will in time form an article of commeree, as it grows to a large size in the congenial air of Hindostan. The riehness of the Indian soil is markedly seen in some of the more eultivated valleys of the Himalaya, such as that of Kangra, which is a fair specimen of the many fertile regions in the Upper Ilimalaya. Temperate and tropical products grow side by side-roses and bamboos, violets, tulips, and plantains, pines, and apples. In Kanawur the vine, bearing excellent grapes, grows wild in the hedges, and pasturelands are not wanting. Indeed, though the alsence of grass in the Himalayan valleys must strike every observant traveller, it is a mistake to suppose that this is due to any quality in the soil or elimate. It is owing to the uncommon strength and abundance of the indigenous vegetation, for whenever a tract of land is kept elear grasses spring up, and the imported species grow exceedingly well. The rielmess and flavour of the native vegetation is sueh that cattle, even when provided with European pasture, are apt to desert it in order to graze at large amid the forests and eopses. However, in the central regions of the Ilimalayas land-lecehes and a peenliar hoof-disease are great enemies to the stock.*

In the "Vale of Cashmere" there are not only "roses the brightest that earth ever gave," but great crops of the rice which forms the staple of the people's food, and wheat, $\dagger$ barley, maize, and other cereals. Cabbages, turnips, cneumbers, lettuces, \&c.,

[^65]es, and sing in , peas, d rape, poppies, proper), s , figs, ar, and rability is the entioned mply a ordinary arboreal 'inchona, as been dent of but to n many onsiders, ongenial of the specimen products ples. In pasturevalleys to any danee of ring up, e native apt to in the e great
at earth ood, and ces, \&c.,
s79) ranks
are retailed at ridienlously low prices, while the womlerful erops of walnuts, mulberries, peaches, cherrics, pomegramates, muts, apples, quinces, peats, and grapes are grown almost without care on flats of ground many of which hear no appearance of having been enltivated for many generations. Grapes, indeed, grow in some eighteen different varieties, aul may be bought at the rate of several pounds for an ama, or rather less than three-halfpence. Peaches, better havorred than our hotlowse ones, are valued at about the same price for a doyen, and other fruits ean be bunght in "the happy valley" about equally as cheap. The faith of so many of the lndian people forbidding the use of wine, viticulture is never likely to form a

the great banyan thee (fices indica) in tie motanical oardenc, calcutta.
prominent branch of agriculture, unless, indecd, it were taken up by Europeans. Already the beer brewed at the Hill Stations has to a great extent superseded that which was onee so extensively imported, and hop-growing las likewise become common in some of the eooler mountain valleys. Light wines could also be extensively prepared in various parts of India, as, for example, in Kashmin. Wine was, iudeel, at one time made from the grapes grown in the valley, and at times large jars are disinterred which are supposed to have been vessels for the reeeption of the generous fluid,

India fourth in the list of whent-producing countries, placing the C'nited States, France, and Russia before her. In the Punjab, North-Western Provinces, and Oudh, and in the Central l'rovinces, tho average yield per acre stands at $13 \frac{1}{3}, 11 \frac{2}{3}$, and 8 bushels respectively. Itrigation, the use of manures, and higher cultivation have, however, more to do with the extra ont-turn of the acreage in these distriets than the thegrem of latitude; and as the improved system of cultivation becomes more genezally known and more widely practised among the ryots, the greater advances may bo expected in tho Indian wheat trade.
buried for its better preservation, as is still the case in some parts of the East. Cider could also, if properly prepared, be produced in any quantity from the Kiashmir apples; and though the climate is not warm enough for the sugar-eane to thrive, yet cotton of good quality can be produced without the irrigation necessary for so many other crops in that part of the country. The Deodar cedar is abundant, and the piphar, willow, and other trees grow wild, in addition to the plane or Chenar tree, which was introduced over two centuries ago, but is now so well maturalised that it is to be seen everywhere, its noble expanse affording a grateful shade to the inhabitants of the villages and farms; and from their presence near the ruined palaces they seem to have been equally appreciated by the royal personages who in time past inhabited these buildings. Aloes, chiretta, rhabarb, wormwood, and other useful plants grow wild, and mile after mile of country is patched yellow with the fields of saffron, which forms a valuable crop in this favoured land.*

Kashmir has been dwelt on not only because it is typieal of the Sub-Himalayan countries enjoying the same climate, but because it affords a peeuliarly excellent field for European emigration, which would not only be highly beneficial to India and the people among whom the colonists would settle, but likely to be conducive to the welfare of the immigrants themselves. The climate is excellent, the soil fertile, land easily aequired, security for life and property good; and it is evident that with proper care as to the articles grown a good market might be found in India among the liuropean residents and troops. Menntime, owing to indifferent gevernment, recklessness, and want of foresight, one of the richest countries in the world is subject to periodical famines, for which there is on the part of the rulers absolutely no excuse. The mango-groves afford pleasant relief to the eye wearied with gazing on the sumburnt plains of Hindostan; and the great spreading banyan, or fig-tree, whieh inereases by sending down subsidiary stem-like roots from the branches under it, spreads over a space sufficient for a little army to encamp on (p. 197). To the Hindoo the palm is what the bamboo is to the Chinese-food, clothing, drink, timber, shelter, shade; and as his food consists almost solely of grains and vegetables, the nature of his country's products fit in conveniently to his religion, if, indeed, his religion were not moulded by the products and climate of his conntry. In most parts of India there are two harvests yearly, and in some quarters there are three. Bajra, a small, round, very mourishing grain, the Holeus spicatus of botanists, jowar, or sorghum, common in the Levant, Greeee, and Italy, and riee and other cereals are sown at the begiming and reaped at the end of the rainy season. Wheat, barley, and various other kinds of grain and pulses are grown during the eold weather and reaped in spring. But it is a mistake to suppose that the people of India live entirely on rice. In British Burmah, Concan (Bombay), Malabar, and the lower parts of Bengal rice is the staple erop; but in the Punjab and Hindostan proper wheat and millet constitute the main food-supplies; and in the Decean a poor kind of grain known as "ragee" $\dagger$ takes the place of the cereals grown in other parts of the country. The sngar-cane abounds in Rohileund and Madras, and the great cotton-fields of Berar, Khandesh, and Guzerat are not unknown

[^66]Cider apples; t cotton y other peplar, nieh was 3 to be s of the to have ell these ild, and forms imalayan field for 1e people e of the security es grown Meante richest e part of e wearied anyan, or hes under e Hindoo , shelter, re of his were not Hia there 1, round, mmon in peginning kinds of But it is Burmah, rop; but supplies; e of the ohileund unknown
in Manehester and Liverpool. Malwa and Bengal grow the poppies which supply the opium, that yields so large an addition by dubionsly meral means to the Indian revenue, and Bengal is the home of the indigo and jute which are now so indispensable to the world's comfcrt and convenience. In Coorg, Wynaad, and the Neilgherrics coffee is grown, and the tea-gardens of Assam, Cachar, Sylhet, and the southern slopes of the Himalayas, from Kangra to Darjecling, are-as we shall by-and-by see-likely before long to seriously affect the long-established monopoly of China. The quinine yielded ly the cinchona-trees introduced by Mr. Markham and his assistants (p. 196) into the ewol regions of the Neilgherry and Darjecling Hills is so excellent that already we are practically independent of the precarions and ever-decreasing supplies of the Peruvian bark; while the ipecacuanha is another medicinal plant which seems to thrive in the Sikkim Terai. Finally, not to enumerate a hundred other products, eardamons and pepper abound along the Western Ghauts, hen.p and linseed are largely exported, and tobaceo is widely grown throughout India.*

## CHAPTER IX.

## India: Its Political Divisions.

The history of this great empire is an interesting topic, but it is foreign to our subject, and even in the briefest outline would occupy more space than we can spare to it. lrom the remote period when it was divided into numerous aboriginal tribes, more or less barbarous, to the day when it fell under the control of a strong hand, its chronicles have been full of war and bloodshed. Its period of peace has been sho:t, for when the comparatively short-lived Mohammedan empire fell to picces, and the lientenants of the "Great Mogul" fought amongst each other for the fragments, the country was in a coutinual turmoil; and it may be safely said-withont expressing any opiuion on the vexed questions of Indian policy-that at no period of their existence have the Indian people enjoyed greater peace and prosperity than they do under the power which at present holds the reins of empire. The first historical account of Indin which we possess is contaned in the Veddas, Sanserit puems which contain the groundwork of the earliest system of philosophy known to us. These chronicles are obseure, and seem mainly to refer to the spread of the Aryans from the high plains of Asia to the lower lands of India. This must have taken centuries, but the date of the events referred to is about 1400 b.c. The march of Alexander the Great as far as the Sutlej, occurred in 350 в.c., and may be taken as the first great landmark in a period of vague, misty traditions.

[^67]The Greck colony which he lounded in Batria was never Homrishing, though it existed up nhaost to the period of the Christian era, In 5.50 n.c., in Northern hadia, was born the Prince Salky, who fomuded that religions onteone of the Vedie theology known as Buedhism, which, spreading with almost muexampted rapidity, has become the faith of the greater portion of Asia, though it hus now almost entirely disappeared from the land of its birth, in which for a time it was equally dominant.


THE MACSOLELM OF THE EMUEHOK AKBML, AT SIKANHLA, A SUBLHB OF AGMA CITY.
Uutil we again come to tangible history in the shape of the Molammedan invasion and conquests the ammals of India consist mainly of lists of kings of various dynasties settled in different parts of the country. The native kings were in a feeble condition when, in 152li, Balber, sixth in deseent from Timoor Leng, or "the Lame," commonly cilled by European writers Tammerlane, the scourros of a great part of Asia, seized the oppurtunity of making a deseent throngh the Afohan passes on Dehi. Long before this date the Arabs had made plundering expeditions to India, and had even fomded dynasties. Mahmûd of Ghuzni, in 1001, permanently established the Mohammedin power in India, and under Genghiz Khan, the Moguls, or Mongols, had as
early as $1: 21: 3$ arrived at the frontier, and for three hundred years rarely allowed a generation to pass without making inroals finther and further into the conntry. 'Tammertane, indeed, haid waste a great portion of Hindostan, but to Baber is the the distinction of having fomuded that Mogul empire which hastel until our day. Humayoon, Akbar (p. 2001), Jehangii, Shah Jehan, and Arungeebe, with varying fortunes, inerensed and consolidated this


IINDOO DANCEHS, OR CLLHACKS.
magnificent and dissolute Empire. But the latter, though a man of great ability, was bigoted and treacherous, and before his death he had sown those seeds of decay which under his incompetent suecessors brought the Mohammelan rule to a elose; though for a eentury after his death the empire dragged on, first under Mahratta sufferance, then under an English protectorate, until the villany of the King of Delhi at the period of the Mutiny tinally ended even the nominal rule of the successors of Baber. This was in 18.57, but long before that date a great portion of the country had beeome aetually independent.

Indeed, as early as 1724 the Deceun, Oudl, and Bengal had beeome pruetically dissevered from the empire. About the begiming of the eighteenth century the Mahratus, a Hindoo raee, had begun to grow powerful under a chieftain mamed Sivaji, and by 1760 they had captured Dellii, where they remained up to 1818 the seourge of Iudia and the most dangerous opponents of the growing English "raj." The Last India Compuny first obtained a foothold in India in 1602, and for a time hand to strive with the Portuguese, Dutch, Danes, and French; but soon the last were their only rivals worthy of the nume. For a time, nevertheless, it seemed as if the French, and not the English, ware to found an Luropean empire in India. Hewever, by the capture of Pondieherry in 1701, Clive strinck the liual blow it the French power; and henceforward the English had only the mative prinees, to whom they were up to that dute little letter thun suffragans, to coutend with.

Warren Hustings was the first Governor-General of British India, and under his suceessors-MePherson, Cornwallis, Teignmouth, Wellesley, Ballow, Minto, Moira, Amherst, Bentinek, Aackland, Ellenborough, Hardinge, and Dallousie-fue after foe of England succumbed, until, with the exception of a few native kingdoms with nominal independenee, the greater part of the country acknowledged the rule, actual or indirect, of the Governor-General in Caleutta, and his various sulalterns in the different presidencies, provinees, commissionerships, and native States. Lord Camning's rule was not so prosperous. The discontent whieh had been long breving broko out on the 10th of May, 1857, in the mutiny of the Bengal army, and rapidly, by preconcerted arrangement, spread throughout the country. But in little more than a year, by the strenuons efforts put forth, it was effectually crushed, and with it came to a close the famons East India Company, whose history, in spite of their many mistakes-and crimes-forms one of the most brilliant volumes in the chronicles of England and the English. On the 1st of November, 1858, the country passed under the direct rule of the Queen; and ever since, the poliey of the Viceroys-lilgin, Lawrence, Mayo, Northbrook, Lytton, and Ripon-has been an imperial one. In 1877 the Queen formally assumed the title of Kaisar-i-IIind (Empress of India) ; and of late years the tendency of the Government has been, while educating the natives to take an intelligent share in the government of their country, to gralually consolidate all parts of the empire into one, so far as this can be done without outrage to the eustoms or religious prejudices of the hatarogeneous races of the immense region over which the British sway extends. A recent step in this direetion is the annexation of some of the Afghan passes, and the erection of Candahar into a separate principality, over which is to rule a nominee favonrable to us, and presumably but indifferent friends with Cabul, against which a fresh war was waged in 1578, and which has still (in 1880) to be settled.*

A few words on each of the great administrative departments (some of which are large kingdoms, more populous than most of those in Eurone) into which the conutry has been divided may now be given. Bengal, Madras, and Bombay are known as presidencies, but the term is no longer accurate. It refers to a period when the English
*Cassell's "History of India," and the works of Mill, Marshman, Thornton, Trotter, Sewell, Owen, Mahon, Low, Sherring, Wheeler, Torrens, Routledge, Duncan, Hill, Forsyth, Arnold, Elliot, and Monier-Williums.
settlements of Fort William, Fort St. George, and Bombay were ruled by a president, who at that period was more a trade superintendent than a political governor. Nowadnys these "presidencies" in the old sense no louger exist, and Bengal, instead of being one government, such as it was in the days when the term origimated, has been broken up, into several. Altogether, British India is divided into twelve great local governments, each of which is independent of tho others, and possesses its own civil government, hut is subordinate to the supreme Government, the sent of which is Culeutta, or, during the hot season, Simla, where the gubernatorial machinery is temporarily located.

## Bengal.

Up to 1853 this vast region was administered direetly by the Governor-General, but in that year it was made a separate province under a Lieutenant-Governor. It is, notwithstauding the large slices which have been out out of it, still very large and populons, contaning 203,473 square miles, and over $61,000,000$ people. It is thus the most extensive and densely populated of all the Indian provinees, and as its revenue is nearly eighteen millions of pounds, it may be said to contribnte over one-thirl of the mational ineome of the empire of which it forms part. Its surface is diversified, and comprises the basin of the Ganges, including Bengal proper, and Behar, which is perhnis as thickly inhabited und fertile a region as the world knows of, and the conntry of Chota Nagpore and Orissa to the west and south-west, which is ill watered, end in consequence subject to periodical famines and other woes. The valleys of Beng;al, though for the most part lusuriant alluvial phans, are diversified by the spurs and peaks thrown out by the "great mountain systems which wall them on the north-west and south-west." Dr. IIunter, from whose numerous works we derive almost our entire data regarding Bengal, remarks that Bengal contains almost every product of the tropies and temperate regions, from the fierce beasts and irrepressible vegetation of the equatorial jungles, to the stunted barley whieh the hillman rears, and the tiny fur animals which he hunts within sight of the perpetnal snows. "Tea, indigo, turmeric, lac, waving white fields of the opium poppy, wheat, and innumerable grains and pulses, pepper, ginger, betel-nut, quinine, and many costly spiees and drugs, oil-seeds of all sorts, cotton, the silk mulberry, inexhanstible crops of jute and other fibres, timber, from the feathery bamboo and coroneted palm to the iron-hearted sal tree-in short, every vegetable product which fceds and clothes a people, and enables it to trade with foreign nations, abounds." The soil near the sea consists of alluvial formations, and indeed it is affirmed that throughout the Delta, or within 400 miles of the river months, in the heart of the province, not a stone is to be found. In the hills and broken coumtry on cither side coal, iron and copper ores exist, and in the west the coal-fields yield a large output, though they are imperfectly developed.

The elimate of Bengal varies in different parts. In one scetion it is cooled by the blasts from the snowy regions of the Himalaya, in another the resilents live in the rapour-bath of the Delta, or pareh under the influence of the burning winds of Behar. But altogether, Bengal is a hot-a very hot-province. The thermometer will often read
$103^{\circ}$ in the shade during the wam months, and if it falls below $60^{\circ}$ the weather is atceounted very cold. However, by the aid of punkiahs, or great fans, and other contrivances, the atmospere of well-built houses is not usually, even during the heats, higher than $95^{\circ}$, which is, however, a temperature utterly enervating while it lasts.

Bengal owes everything to its rivers-the chicf of which are the Ganges and Brah-mapootra-which enable the traders to carry on these manased highways the products of an immense region of country, and, in addition to daily adding to the extent of the Delta by their floods, deposit alhwium whieh yearly supplies fresh soil to the ryot or farmer, renders ehaborate culture monecessary, and puts ary fear of exhansting the soil by over-cropping out of the question. "As the rivers ereep further down the Delta they beeme more and more sluggish, and their bifurcations and interlacings more and more complicated. The last seene of all is a vast amphibions wilderness of swamp and forest, amid whose solitudes their network of channels insensibly merges into the sea. Here the peremnial struggle between earth and ocem goes on, and all the ancient secrets of land-making staml diselosed. The rivers, finally cheeked by the dead weight of the sea, deposit their remaining silt, which emerges as banks or blunted promontories, or after a year's battling with the tide, add a few feet, or it may be a few incles, to the foreshore." At the time of the annual inmadations the commtry in the lower part of the Delta presents the appearamee of an immense sea. Hundreds of square miles of the riee-fields are submerged to a great depth, the ears of grain floating on the surface, while in all directions peasants may be seen going to their daily work with their cattle on rafts or in eanoes. Indeed, what with the Ganges and Brahmapootra, and their tributaries, and the lakes, rivulets, and other water-courses, there are many parts of Bengal where it is pessible to sail up to the door of almost every cottage. However, as has already been noticed, the vagaries of the rivers add to and diminish estates in such an unexpeeted but persistent manner, that in course of ages a partieular branch of jurisprudence has grown up, the provinee of which is "the definition and regulation of the alluvial rights alike of private property and of the State."

Bengal contains within its area over a million and a quarter more people than the whole inhabitants of Eigland and Wales, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Grecee, and the Ionian islands, with the total white, Indian, and Chinese population of the United States. These millions comprise various nationalities and religions, and differ from each other widely as to the grade of civilisation they have attained to. In a day's journey we may meet the highly-edueated Hindoo gentleman, who is more familiar with Theodore Parker and Comte than half of the Oxford graduates, and could diseuss as learnedly Sanserit philosophy and the Shashtras as he conld Fichte and Herbert Speneer; and side ly side with him, crecping along, the rude hillman, on whose altars, in spite of police vigilatee, was offered up not many years ago an idiot as a human sacrifice to appease the deities represented by the members of the English Privy Council, before whom the ehieftain had then an appeal. "On the same bench of a Caleutta college," writes the historian of Bengal, "sit youths trained $u$, in the strictest theism, others indoetrinated in the mysteries of the Ilindoo trinity and pantheon, with representatives of every link in the chain of superstition-from the harmbess offering of tlowers before the family god, to the ernel rites of hali,
eather is her conse lieats, asts nd Braliproduct: extent of to the xhansting down the ings more of swamp into the he ancient ad weight montories, w inches, lower part e miles of he surface, their cattle and their paits of However estates in ilar branch regulation pople than ce, and the ited States. each other ey we may Parker and philosophy with him, was offered resented by an appeal 'sit yonths the llindoo perstition-es of Kali,

Whose altars in the most eivilised district of Bengrl, as lately as the famine of 1806, were staned with human blood." liven the llindoos, taking that term in its mot restricted sense, are as near akin to us as are the Irish, Welsh, and Scottish Highlanders, for they speak a language sprung from the Sanserit, and nearer allied to Enghsh than are the Celtic dialects. The Massulmans execed twenty-one million souls, and so far as numbers go, Dr. Hunter very justly remarks, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal is as

view of the poit of calcetta.
great a Mohammedan power as the Sultan of Turkey himself. To again use the eloquent words of the Director-General of Indian statisties: "Amid the stupendons catastrophes of the soasons, the river inmodations, famines, tidal waves, and cyelones of the Lower Province: of Bengal, the religious instinet works with a vitality moknown in Europem comentres, where the forces of nature have long yiclded to the e ntrol of man. Until the British Government stepped in with its police, and eanals, and railroads between the people and what they were aecustomed to eonsider the dealings of Providence, senrecly a year passed without some temible manifestation of the power and wrath of (iod. Mahratta invasions from Central India, piratical devastations on the seaboard,
banditti who marched ahout the interior in bolies of 50,000 men, floods which drovined the larvests of whole districts, and dronglits in which a third of the population starved to death, kept alive a sense of luman powerlessness in the presence of an Omuipotent fate with an intensity which the homilies of a stipendiary clergy fail to awaken. Under the Mohammedians a pestilence turnel the eapital into a silent wilderness, never again to be repeopled. Under our own rule it is estimated that ten millions perished within the Lower Provinees alone in the famine of 1769-70; and the first Surveyor-General of Bengal entered on his maps a tract of many hundreds of square miles as bare of villages, and 'depopulated by the Maghs.'" Education is well attended to in Bengal, and sehools, supported or aicied by Government, or of the "hedge" type, are numerons and increasing. Courts of justice are plentiful, and moderately cheap in their process. The comutry is being rapidly intessected by roads and railways, and though there is still muct: to be desired in this respect, greater control than formerly is being exercised over the rivers and the natural water supply, by sioring it in tanks, on whieh the safety of a country like Bengal greatly depends. The Government also watches over the emigration from the over-populated or sterile distriets of the West to the rieh under-populated territories in the Last, and controls the importation of "coolies" to the West Indies and other colonies beyond the sea. Charitable dispensaries are being widely distributed over the country, so that the epidemics which at one time raged unopposed ere less fatal than formerly; and thongh cheeks have been put on the license of the vernacular press, the Bengalee cannot complain that he is either oppressed intellectually or otherwise. Dr. Hunter estimates the taxation for civil administration alone at less than 1s. 11d. per hea!. But where wages are so low and earnings so trifling this sum must not be gauged by the $i$ ropean standard. There are as yet no representative institutions in any of the Indian provines. But the IIindoos' capacity for local self-goverument is grat, Their village system, as has already been pointed out,* is a very perfect and simple form of municipality, and in the large eities like Catentta town councils after the English fashion exist in full working order. Bengal, under its native rulers, laad large towns which no longer exist. They are overgrown by jungle, washed into the rivers, or, having been devastated by famine, war, or pestilence, have been deserted and allowed to fall into ruins. On the other hand, under British rule many market centres, such as Nawabgauj and Sirajgarj, have sprung up, and languishing eities have attained great size and prosperity. On the Bay of Bengal there are ten or twelve considerable ports, of which the principal is Chittagong, from which most of the rice is shipped. But the ehief commercial transactions are earried on in the large inland towns like Patna and Calcutta. Indeed, it may be said that the trade of Bengal practically centres in the last-named eity, from which rice, opium, indigo, jute, tea, oil-seeds, silk, eotton, \&c., are exported, and through which cerery elass of Luropean grods is imported.

Calcutta-the "Kali Glatta," or the goddess Kali's landinc-place-is situated on one of the branches of the Ganges, above one hundred miles from the sen (Plate XLVI., and p. 205), and stretches about tive miles along the river banks, covering altogether an area of

[^68]ov ned ;tarved ipotent Under again within jeneral sare of 3engal, merous rocess. is still ereised which es over e rich to the widely sed are naeular lerwise. 1d. per gauged of the Their orm of English large rivers, ed and market cities ten or nost of in the at the opinm, y class
eight square miles. When the English first settled here in 1686 the eity could scarcely be said to exist, its molens being three villages which were presented to the East India Company by the Emperor of Dethi. Calcuta was in reality the name of one of these vilhages, though for a time the new settlement took is name from Fort William, which had bee: sected to defend the factories, and which fort-or, at least, another under the same name-still exists. Since those days, in spite of many vicissitudes, it has prospered greatly, and now contains about half a million inhabitants, of whom not over eight thousand are Europeans: the majority are Hindoos and Mohammedans. If, however, the suburbs and three smaller municipalities on the opposite side of the river are added, the population of Calcutta is not less than 900,000 . The poorer quarters of the city are squalid, but the newer streets are fine and spacious, lighted with gas, and supplied with water in greater abundance and of a beiter quality than that doled out to London. It has been called the "city of palaces," and certainly its numerous fine public buildings entitle it to that lofty designation. Its manufactures are numerous and increasing, and there seems no likelihood that the prosperity of the city will ever suffer a surious check. The other Bengal cities are more modest in their dimensions, and me..... ; but even they are rapidly advancing, in European improvements, and the population year by year becoming more and more familiar with the language, customs, and even rrejudices of the dominant race.

Beagal was in the early days of the English conquests in India a vague term covering nearly the whole of the British territory, and, as "the Company's" establishments "crept up the river," the "Bengal Presidency" came to mean really the whole of Northern India. But in 1831 the North-West Provinces were separated from this territory, and at a later date Oudh and the Punjab arose as the limits of the British rule extended. At present Bengal means the "Lower Bengal", and consists of four divisions; for in 1874 Assam was erected into a separate commissionership. Three of these provinces-viz., Bengal Proper, Behar, and Orissa-consist of river valleys, but Chota Nagpore is a mountain region which separates them from the central plateau of India. Finally, for administrative purposes, Bengal is divided into forty-seven districts, each ruled by eeparata olinials, but all responsiblo to the Lieutenant-Governor, who in his turn must wor for his acts to the Vieeroy and Council in Caleutta, and they in their turn to de wocretary of State for India, and generally to LIer Majesty's Ministers and Parliame nt.

Unlike the Governors of Bombay and Madras, the Lientenant-Governor of Bengal has no Executive Council to divide the responsibility of the glory of his rule with. lie is watched over with discreet jealousy by the Governor-General and his Comeii, l.w proally he stands alone, issnes orders in his own name, and bears the brunt or reaps the reward of his every act. However, in making laws he is assisted by a Legislative Council, consisting of his chief officers and the leading members of the non-oflicial Bmyean and native communities, who are, however, not elceted, but appointed by the Governe it.

Finally, Dr. Hunter insists that so long as the English hold the port of Calcutta and the rich provinees of Bengal, the power they will possess will be sufficient to enable them
to recover India should any aceident ever temporarily shake their sway in the Punjab and north-west. But the vast income of Lower Bengral-abont $£ 15,000,000$, of which tll,000,000 or so is surplus after defraying the cost of grovermment-is not derived from

the matsolety or etmadnowlall, agka.
these provinces solely. China contributes $£ 5,000,600$ in the shape of opium duty, and the inland parts of India contribute about one-third of a million to the Bengal Customs. Ronghly speaking, therefore, the Bengalees, in the shape of imperiul, provincial, municipal, and rutal taxation of every description, pay 3s. 5d, a head for their Government. It is, however, clear that the Chinese $£ 5,000,000$ cannot always continte, while the subsidiary revenue from inland States is precarious. But these are political questions which hare
been long hotly debated; and thongh their discussion would be not without interest or importance, it does not strictly come within onr seheme.*

## 'The Nohth-Western Phovinces.

$\mathrm{U}_{1}$, to 1831 these icrritories constituted part of the Presidency of Bengal, but they are now under a sepanate Lieutenat-Governor. lneluding Oudh, which in 1576


AN indigo factony at at.lathabad,
Was absorbed into them, they number a population of over $43,000,000$, oeenpying a region of abont 100,000 square miles, so that the country is almost as thickly populated as Bengal. In this region are ineloded Meerut, Rohilemud, Agra, Alahabad, and Benares, in addition to Oulh, thongh since 1859, when the Punjab was erected into a separate lieutenant-governorship, Delli was transferred to that province.

More than a thousamd miles from Calentta, and forty miles to the north of Delli,

* Hunter: "Statistical Account of Bengal;" "Annals of Rural Bengal:" "Orissat" and articles in Fincy-
 Barton: "Mougal;" Gant-Duff: "Notes of an Indian Journey;" lilke: "(Greater Britain," \&e.
lies Meerut, a green and pleasant city, the centre of a district of the North-Western Provinces. Here the Mutiny of 1557 first broke ont, and was maceountably allowed to spread, the garrison oflicers being evidently not completely alive to the charaeter of the plot which for montlis had been fermenting under their very eyes.

Rohilennd is a fruitful, well-watered provinec; and Agra, though sadly fallen from its ancient grandenr, when it was the imperial city of Akbar, the "gicatest and wisest," as he has been justly characterised of the old Lemperors of Hindostan. Agra is also fanous for its nosques and tombs (pp. 200, 208), and is known for the "Taj Mahal," that "dream in marble" which Alkiar's grandson, Shah Jehan, reared at onee as a tomb and a monument to his beautiful quecn, Mumlaz-i-Mahal, "the flower of the palace." Nothing like this wonderful building exists in India, and even in Florence its mosaies in pietrat ilura are unequalled. Akbar himself lies in a mausoleum a ferv miles out of the city, so vast that a regiment of horse were on one occasion quartered in its arches (p. 200). Twenty miles off is Futtepore Sickri, the noble mosque of which is another of the many monuments remaining to attest the greatness and the misfortunes of Akbar. Thirty-five miles north-west of Agra is Muttra, an old Hindoo city faned for its shrines and saered monkeys. Mr. Andrews tells us that many years ago two young Englishmen in silly sport wounded one of these holy animals. Its screams and the chorus of its offended relatives attracted the iuhabitants to the spot. In a frenzy of religious excitement they would have torn the Englishmen to pieces had they not forced the elephants they were riding into the river; but as this animal rolls when in the water, the offenders were drowned in mid-stream, the mahout, or driver, alone reaching the opposite bank.

Allahalad is the present eapital of the North-Western Provinces, and from its commanding situation at the meeting-place of the waters of the Jumua and Ganges is important from a military and commercial point of view, but what in India is often quite as important, from a religious aspect also. It is about 500 miles from Calentta, and contains a population of 150,000 , which at certain ocurns, when the pilgrims flock into it, is swollen to much greater numbers, the railways of which it is a centre enabling the pioks to journey thither with greater ease and much more cheaply than they were able to do in former days. Allahabad is also the name of a "division" and a "district" which contains nearly a million and a lalf of souls. The division, in addition to four other districts, comprises that of Cawnpore, the centre of which is the city of the same name, on the left banks of the Ganges, containing 123,000 inhalitants, and doing a large trade in indigo (p. 209), saddlery, and other leather manufactures. But Cawnpore will ever have a sad fame in Indian history on account of the share it took in the terrible events of the Mutiny. After the news of the rising at Mecrnt and Delhi reached the eity, the native troops mutinied, and besieged the British residents and soldiers, who had taken refuge within the ill-chosen cantonments outside the eity. After enduring terrible hardships in the defence, the survivors were promised safe conduct to Allahabad if they would surrender; but as they were embarking on the river they were fallen upon ly Nana Salib's ruffians, and many cruelly

[^69]massaered. Ouly four survived to tell the tale; and the remainder spared from the river-slaughter were remorselessly butchered on the news reaching the city of the suceessive defeats of the mutineers by the relieving armies. Finally Havelock sueceeded in recapturing it, though mhappily the head of the rebels, Nana Sahib, succeeded in escaping with his immediate followers, and has never since been seen by any one who earel or who was strong enough to hand him over to justice. A monument is now erected over the well into which so many of the slaughtered women, children, and men, as well as those who fell during the siege, were thrown, and a lovely garden covers the place which was, in the nemory of so many still living, the scene of such horrors. Cawnore District is a portion of the well-watered and fertile country known as the "Dual." It supperts over a million and a half of people, mostly engaged in agriculture or its collateral industries. Their staple is wheat, but cotton of a good quality has of late been cultivated, in addition to the usual erops of the Nortli-Western Provinces.

Benares is an even more important and an infinitely holier division, district, and town, than Cawnpore. Its morits in this respect have already been noticed; but in modern times the commereial importance of the place is likely to compete with its religious reputation. Yet undoubtedly to both its trading and saered advantages Benares owes its celebrity, as well to the fact that from the most ancient times it has been the seat of a mative kingdom. Indeed, if the chronicles are to be credited, a Ilindoo rajah ruled here 1,200 years before Christ was born; and ever since the Indian historians have been comparatively trustworthy they have recorded the struggles of rival adventurers for the possession of Benares. The rebellion of Chait Singh, owing to the unjust demands of Warren Hastings, and the Mutiny of the native regiments in 1857, are its most important events in later times. The first incident figured extensively in the trial of the Governor-General, and the second resulted unsuceessfully so far that the distriet was never for an hour lost to British rule. Though the neighbouring country is very fertile, and would therefore support a large population, its temples attract pilgrims quite as much as its bazaars, beaped with sugar, saltpetre, indigo, silk, shawls, vessels of brass, filagree work, and the gold-embroidered eloths which are famous under the name of "kincol." "Twenty-five centuries ago at least," writes the Rev. Mr. Sherring, "it was famous. When Babylon was struggling with Nineveh for supremaey, when Tyre was planting her colonies, when Athens was growing in strength, before Rome had become known, or Greece had contended with Persia, or Cyrus added lustre to the Persian monarchy, or Nebuchadnezzar had captured Jerusalem, and the inhabitants of Judaea had been carried into captivity, she had already risen to greatness, if not to glory. Nay, she may have heard of the fame of Solomon, and have sent her ivory, her apes, and her peacocks to adorn his palaces, while partly with her gold she may have overlaid the Temple of the Lord." In the seventh century of our ear a Chinese pilgrim deseribed it as containing thirty Buddhist monasteries and about a hundred Hindoo temples. Even yet, though the Buddhists have almost entirely vanished from the city, it is still great in its religious houses, rieh in worldly goods, and, apart from its religious associations and ancient history, Benares is one of the most picturesque of the cities of India (pp. 185, 186). The first vierv of its domes and minarets from the bend of the Ganges on which the city is
built is by universal consent pronounced as fine a view of the kind as Hindostan has to offer. The banks of tho river are lined with stone, and on the numerons "ghauts" (p. 187) devotees and pleasure-seekers loiter all day long, glad to eseape from the stuffy streets, so narrow that a carriage camot pass along, and affording even scant space for a man on horseback. The houses are in many cases picturesque, with veranilahs,

tie hoorreivabad imambara, lucknow.
galleries, projeeting oriel windows, and very broad overbanging eaves supperted by earved braekets. Some of the buildings are five and six storeys in height, and the greater number are, after a favourite Hindoo fashion, painted a deep red colour, and adorned "with pietures of flowers, men, women, bulls, elephants, and gods and goddesses in all the multiform shapes known in Hindoo mythology." In Benares there is nowadays an English eollege, English churek`s, and English missionaries of several denominations, besides sehools of different kinds. But most of the foreign residents do not live in the city itself, but at Sikrol, an extensive suburb on the north-west side of the
has to ghats" o stulfy at space randals,
eity, and where the military camp, the langlish educational institution, and the pahce of the Muharajah, as well as the courts of law, the public garden, the blind and leper asylnms, the jail, and other more or less prouounced Luropean establishments, are situated.

Oullh-or Oude, as it is more commonly written-was mutil 1876 a separate commissionership, but it is now a division of the North-Western Provinces, and not the least important of them, since it is 270 miles long, 160 broad, and contains an area of 27,890 square miles, and a popnlation which cannot be estimated at fewer than $13,000,000$. The northeru part of Outh consists of the terai on the border of Nepaul, and is not very well kuown; but the rest of the country is a great plain sloping from north-west to south-east, and traversed by the Gumti, Ghogra, and Ilapti, which are notorious throughout Hindostan owing to the swarm of alligators which infest them. The country is accounted one of the healthiest in the Ganges valley, and the soil, which is fertile, yiclds good crops of wheat, barley, grain, rice, tobaceo, indigo, sugar-eane, and other crops. Some manufactures are earried on, particularly those of military weapons, woollen goods, paper, \&e. But as a rule the inhabitants are warlike, and though for ages dominated by Mohammedan rulers, are for the most part Ilindoos, and the prevailing tongue is likewise Hindostanec. This province, as it is still sometimes called, supplied the greater number of those sepoys to the Bengal army who obtained such infamy in the mutiny. Oudh, up to 1850 , was independent, but was governed so atrociously that in the interest of the inhabitants of the kingdom and of their own territories the East India Company was foreed to annex it. Murders, robberies, abductions, and extortions had for years been daily occurrences. No man's property was safe, and the inhabitants went about with their lives in their hands. "A feeble king, a blackguard soldicry, and a lawless peasautry" have been justly described as the three causes in combination which reduced the country to a helpless anarchy. In 1857 it was one of the centres of the mutiny, and the defence of Lucknow will ever rank among the brightest and saddest episodes of that lurid period. The kingdom prior to the annexation was noted for the number of its ryots, or peasants who had a virtual ownership in the land they tilled, but they were sadly oppressed by the "talukdars," or farmers of the revenue under the "Great Mogul," whose extortions had in many eases reached that stage which compelled the unhappy peasants to surrender their lands to their tyrants. Hence at the present day, in spite of the confiseations which followed the mutiny, the talukdars own great estates, and pay Government revenue to the extent of over $£ 700,000$ per annum.

Awadh, or Oudh, is one of the principal and most aucient towns in the provinee, and Roy Bareilly and Shahabad are also places of consequence; but Lucknow is now the most celebrated and prosperons of the cities of Oudh, as well as its eapital. It stands on the south-west banks of the Gumti, which from this point is navigable all the way to the Ganges. The town is said to be the oldest of any consequence in India, though it contains no building which seems of great antiquity. The central portion contains a few red brick houses and mud-huts roofed with straw ; but on either side of this middle portion streteh
suburbs of handsome buildings, none of which are, however, over a century old. Within the last few years the city and its imhabitants have greatly improved. As late as 1850 everyborly went about armed. Even the shopkeeper served his enstomer sword on thigh, and with his buckler ready to be grasped in caso a dispute regnrding the price arose, or a rival trader or robber proeeeded to extremities. Still, in those diys the eity is said to have contained over 300,000 inhabitants, while, in the census of 1871 , the number is placed at 281,779 . "Its noble-looking mosques and semi-Italian palaces, surrounded sometimes by green nud wooded parks, awaken in the mind a sense of grandeur and beauty which a nearer view of the streets and buildings does not tend to deepen." To this verdict of an eye-witness may be added the saving remark that some of the buildings and streets are handsome and well worth seeing. But it is not for its arehitectural attractions that visitors to India make a pilgrimage to Lucknow. Here in 1857 a handful of men and women held the Resideney against the whole of the rebellious army of Ondh, and into this city marched Havelock and Campibell with those armies of relief which have long ago become historic. It is the events of that epoeh that will ever give the capital of Oudh a prominent place in history and in romance.

## The Penjab.

The Punjab, or Panjab, the Pentapotamia of the Greeks, or, as the name literally means, the land of the five rivers, is a country containing about 200,000 square miles, watered by the Indus and its five great tributaries. The northern part of the country consists of spurs of the Llimalayas enelosing deep valleys, or level country intersected by these spurs, while the southern part is for the most part more or less unbroken land, save where the Salt Range, varying in height from 2,000 to 5,000 fect, wedges itself in between the Indus and the Jhelum. The five "duabs" of the Punjab are the five interfluvial tracts or "plains of the Indus." These tracts are well suited for agriculture, in spite of littie or no rain often falling for long periods; but the proximity of so many rivers enables the peasant to obtain a plentiful supply of water for irrigation. The agriculture is, however, backward, and trees are so few and small that the excrement of cows is commonly used for fuel. The soil varies. In some parts it is stiff clay, in others loam, but for the most part it is sandy and barren, unless when rendered fruitful 1 ' means of artificial watering. Accordingly, fine erops of wheat, barley, buckwheat, riee, tobaceo, opium, indigo, maize, and numerons other produets of the Indian climate are grown. The climate, it may be remarked, is one of the least agrecable in India. In summer the plains are oppressively hot and dry, though this is compensated for by the parched residents getting invigorated by the cool, and even frosty, months of winter. In the great towns like Delhi, Amritsir, Lahore, and Mooltan some manufacturing industry is carried on; but of the inhabitants as a whole it is difficult to give any general description, since they are composed of Jats, Goojers, Rajnoots, and Pathans, Mohammedans, Hindoos, and Sikhs being the chief religionists.

Though the British aequired possession of the Punjab in 1818, the territory directly under the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab comprises only about half of the country,
or a regrion nearly as large as the kingdom of Italy. The rest of it is divided up ameng thirty-fiur fendatory native States, having amongst them about 5,000,000 people, a revenue of $£ 16,000,000$, and armies the exact size of which it is diflicult to exaetly lix, since these wily princelings have a triek of passing their people through the army, while their standing force is mlways strietly within the preseribed bomuls. It is, however, affirmel that they could eall out 50,000 men were they of a mind to do so. But this is a most unlikely contingeney, for an Indian chieftain usully loves his neighbour with so seant an affeetion that in this unbrotherly kindness the conquerors find their safety. In aldition to these civilised-or semi-civilised-feudutories, the British Government receives a quasi allegiance from a number of frontier tribes whose clans are rarely at peace with eaeh other. Altogether they do not number much over 130,000 men oat of the $18,000,000$ which the Pumjal contains. The Sikhs waged two wars with the Snglish in India. The last was 1848-49, and resulted in the final effacement of that warlike people as a separate nation. Since 1839 the country had been the seene of rapine and anarehy. Several members of the royal family were murdered, and the sirlars had placel on the throne of Runjet Singh a eliild named Duleep Singh, who was believed to be his last deseendant. The warlike sirdars were, however, anxious to try their strength with the British. Their army was numerous and well disciplined, and their artillery not inferior to that of any forees which could be brought against them. They, however, mistook their power, and the end of it was that the Punjub was amexed, and the King pensioned off. Sinee that date the Maharajalh Duleep Singh has resided in this country, leading the life of an Euglish gentleman, and doubtless passing an existence more peacealle than he could have expeeted among his turbulent nobles, who had to be crushed by their socereign, lest in their turn they should crush him. The comntry under the English rule has been most peaceable, and as the remembrance of the old wars is dying out the people are leginning to appreciate a Goverument under whieh they can obtain some sccurity for not having their throats cut between sunrise and sunset.

Among the districts into whiel the Puujab is divided for administrative purposes the most interesting historieally is that of Delhi. The Commissionership comprises the districts of Delhi, Gurgaon, and Karnal, a total area of 5,557 square miles, with a population of over $2,000,000$. The eountry for the most part consists of stony desert or hard sandy soil, where no cultiv ation ean be carried on except by the aid of irrigation, supplied from canals, the I ana River, and some mountain streams. The exceptions to the rule are supplied by the low-lying alluvial tract in the north, and a fringe of fertile soil on the banks of the Jumna to the sonth of the eity of Delhi. In Delhi for two eenturies the Mogul Emperors reigned, and here in 1858 the last trace of the 1 winal authority of the suceessors of Arungzebe was effaced by the hands of the incensed English, whose kindness in reseuing his father from the tutelage of the Mahrattas he had so ill repaid. The eity contains some fine buildings, and even in the native town most of the houses are of briek, well built and sulstantial; but the smaller streets, like most of the ways in Eastern towns, are narrow and tortuous, and frequently end in cul-de-sacs. The main thoronghfares are, however, broad, spaeious, and well lighted, drained, and metalled, while the remains of the palaee, the Resideney, the mosques, the Government College, and
the l'rotestant Church are worlhy of my city in the last or West. 'Ihe tombs of the imperial finaly contain some very leantilil structures, but the palaces of the mobles which in former times gave Delhi an imperial nir have for the most part given way to structures of less arehitectual pretemsions. 'The history of Delli is the history of a great part of Indin, and the impurtane of its site in the eyes of successive comparors and kings is proved by the ruins of suceessive cities which strike the eye of the

tembe at michooridi, neah hhoherohe.
traveller it long before the red sandstone walls and bastions of the present eity eome in sight. In rapid succession it has witnessed great prosperity and abject poverty, magnifience such as the last only emaeives of, and misery such as unhappily the East is even yet only too familiar with. Under one eonqueror its strects were piled with dead, slain in the mad lust for slanghter whieh had seized the brutal vietor; in another age its population had almost deserted it to gratify the whim of a monarch who conceived the idea of immortalising himself by transferring the seat of government elsewhere. "Peace and bloodshed, greatuess and homiliation, good government and fearful tyramy" have been its lot since the day when it rose on the decay of, or evolved

itself out of, the old Aryan city of Indrapastha to the period when Nicholson reeaptured it from the mutirers, and inaugurated for it under British protection a new era of peace and prosperity. It is now a busy commercial city and a great railway centre. The lines which start from it in all directions carry into its bazaars the products of many districts. At the date of the last census the city contained, including the suburbs, a population of 181,840 , the greater number of whom were Mohammedaus, thus reversing the condition of things which existed in former days. At one time Delhi was the prineipal Mohammedan town, but after the mutiny the entire native population were expeiled from it, and though the Hindoos were afterwards adnitted, the Moslems were for long rigidly excluded. This edict seems to lave frightened many of them away from the eity, and doubtless of those who were pressint within its walls during the fearful days of the muting, when it was garrisoned $l y$ from 50,000 to 70,009 rebels, there are many still living who know that if their misdeeds were revealed Delhi might of all citios in hadia be the least safe abiding place for them. But the imperial maguificence of Delhi has not even yet departed. Here in 1876 the Prince of Wales received a royal reception, and in this ancient city of kings and emperors the Queen was, on the lst of January, 1877, proclaimed Empress of India, in suceession to the "Great Megul."*

Amritsir is the centre of a division and district which consists of a nearly level plain, with a slight slope to the west, and yielding abundant erops of the Puajab products. The city forms the great trading centre of the conntry; aud in addition is a noted seat of Silh learning and religion. The sacred tank which was constructed in 1581 is a favourite place of pitgrimage with the devotees of the faith. The town itself is populous, the number of inlabitants beng over 137,000, but tha streets are narrow, and the houses possess little arelitectural merits over those of any oher town of Hindostan, unless, indeed, the great fortress of Goviudargh is to be considered an exception. This buge stracture was erected by Runjet Singh in 1809, ostensibly to protect the pilgrims visiting ise place, but in reality to overawe the vast and tumultnous assomblage. $\dagger$ Shawls in imitation of those of Kashmir, and silks, are among the industries of the place, but Iudian banking also concentrates in the town, and in Amritsir a visitor would have no difficulty in obtaining a quaint "hundi," or letter of credit, on almost any town in Asia. To Amritsir also come Manchester goods, and from it grain and its local manufacares are sent to other parts of Findostan and to Europe.

Lohore, thirty-six miles east from Amritsir, thong aceounted the most important town of the Punjab, is less populous than its commercial rival, t'oough, owing to the eity being frequently the residence of the Governor-General (p. 217) and the seat of a university, it has rapidly advanced in wealth and prosperity. At present its population numbers about 160,000 , but under the Mrguis it is reported to have been a busy hive of upwards of $1,000,0 \mathrm{C} 0$ souls. Though the streets of the modern town are narrow and

* See Mr. Val. Prinsep's "Imperial Indin" ( 1870 ), and the letters descriptive of the Prinee of Wales's tour, published in the Times, Stamderd, Daily Telegraph, and Daily Vews (or collected into volumes), by Messrs. W. II. Russoll, George Henty, J. Drew Gay, and Archibald Forbes. For Oudh see alse Irwin: "The Garden of India" (1880).
† Thornton: "Indian Gazettecr" (1862).
mean, the city bears many evilences of its former splendour. The brick walls and extensive fortifications which surround it tell a tale of covetousness on the part of its turbilent neighbours, troublous times, and long sieges. The numerous wells inside the walls point to the necessity of the city being well provided for resisting an enemy; the fine gardens bespeak case, wealth, and luxnry, and there is searcely a road of the city but is strewn with the ruins of magnificent buildings dating from the earlier days of Lahore prosperity. Up to 1799 Lahore was still a city of eonsequence, but in that year Runjet Singh-who is buried here*- transferred his capital to Amritsir, and with this change the place began to decay, and continued its dceadence until the British conquest of the Punjab onee more gave it the fillip which is at present animating it again.

Mooltan-200 miles south-west of Lahore-is another aneient city of the Panjab, but is a mere shadow of its former self. It is, indeed, only the remnant of four cities, but abounds in mosques, tombs, and shrines, which attest its quondam magnificence. Yet under the Bricish rule Mooltan is again rising rapidly. Its bazaars are thronged, its looms busy, and its merehants and bankers proverbially wealthy. The neighbouring country is fertile, and as the city is now in the circuit of tho Punjab railways, and connected with Hyderabad, 570 miles distant, by a line of steamers, a large and inereasing traffic is opening up between it, Kurrachee, and other ports and inland towns. It has a population of about 80,000 . These are the chief cities of the Pcnjab, but Goojerat, where was fought the last battle in the Sikh War, Rawal Pindi, Aitok, Bhawulpoor, and Peshawnr are all towns of somo importance. Peshawur is, indeed, a fortress and city of great military value, owing to its proximity to the frontier of Afghanistan. The province of which it is the capital was up to a late period part of the Ameer of Cabul's territory. It was originally built by Alibar, but it afterwards fell into the hands of the Afghans. From their grasp it was wrenchod by Runjet Singh, with whose kingdom it descendel to us (p. 215). When the city foll into the hands of the Sikhs it possessed 100,000 inhabitants, but nowadays its population, though inereasing under the British rule, does nut number over 05,000 . As a trading place for the frontier tribesmen it is of some importanee, but as a garrison town and fortress it is ehiefly important to the Punjab. Even this distinction will be partially lost to it since the frontier has been pushed further into Afghanistan, though at the same time what it loses in military prestige it will gain in trade with the hillmen, whose capital it will hecome.

The Punjab has great capabilities, and as the country gets thorouphly settled down to that industrious life whieh wars and the ever-present fear of depredation preeluded, it may before long be one of the wealthiest of the Indian Governments. Within its boundary there is, however, much waste land. The duabs, or doabs-t hat is, regions between the rivers-are not all fertile. The good land is, indeed, mainly coufined to a strip on the banks of either river, the intervening territory being a "hâr," or waste, varying from forty or lifty miles at the base to a few miles at the point where it approaches the junction of the two rivers. In early days these duabs were left to the nomadic breeders of eattle, camels, \&c., for though remote from the river irrigation, and sparsely populated

[^70]owing to the great depth at which water could be found, plenty of fodder in the shape of small trees and prickly shrubs are scattered over them, and in favourable rainy seasons fine crops of grass spring up. But in addition to the camel breeders, the burs affurded safe refige for the cattle-stealers, who subsisted by pouncing on the herds belonging to the villagers in the fertile lands of the adjoining duab, and driving their plunder off into the wilderness, where, before the luckless owners were aware of their loss, they were

R.MLWGY THAYELLING IN INDIA.
almost beyond the reach of recovery by force, while the batr was a land into which the king's writ ran not. For long-even under our administration-no effort was made to cheek these depredations. But of late years the increase of cultivation and the growth of population are gradnally cireumseribing these wastes, and in time the bârs will get so limited in extent that the robbers who still hament them will find it to their profit either to take to a comparatively honest life, or seek a region further removed from jails, polieemen, the gallows, and other handmaids of good govermment. The inhabitants of the bârs lived after a rude and uneonth fashion. The produce of their herds supplied them with the bulk of their food; wheat or maize flour was a luxury, for their ordinary bread consisted
the bruised seeds of a jungle grass, which, though not disagreeable to the taste, was only slightly mutritious. A rainy season was looked forward to as a wonderful stroke of luek. Then grass was abmilant, and water for themselves and cattle was found in the shallow pools. But in ordinary years the nomads had to dig a well at each encampment, and as the water was not usually found at a less depth than eighty or ninety feet, this was always a laborious and often a dangerous task. Nor were the inhabitants of the bâr free from other anxieties. The law, it is truc, did not often lay its hand on the offenders, whe found a refuge in these wilds. But the professors of "khôj," or tracking, were always on the alert to follow up the trail of stolen stock. These trackers were professional gentlemen, whose talent was inherited, for like every other calling in India, that of "khôj" descended from father to son. One of these adepts was in former times usually attached to each police-station, and when outraged villagers nade complaints of their cattle being stolen, the tracker was sent on the trail of the thieves. How keenly they followed this up, and with what skill they would make the most triffing eircumstance subserve their purpeses, are the theme of many an old Indian's tale. No North American Indian-not even the mythical personage of the novel-could perform this task more adroitly, and, it may be added, no trackers had ever more wily thieves to track. The inhabitants of the bâr were quite familiar with the skill of those who were set to find them out, and when they put their wits in action to elude the trailer, the contest was akin to that in which diamond is set to cut diamond, or Greek to cheat Greek. "Rumming water leaves no trail"" and accordingly the rivers of either side of the duab were freely made use of whenever available. The dry soil of the bâr, however, left the mark of the cattle's hoofs, and to avoid these they were shod with leather bags, tied round the fetlock, whic'. prevented the hoofs from scratehing the hard surface. "The law of the khôj," as a writer on the Pamjab explains, was, "that on the 'khôji,' or tracker, bringing the train of stolen animals to village, the headmen of the township are bound to show that the traeks proceed bey ul their limits, or, failing to produce the thicf, to make good the value of the stolen cattle This practice bears some analogy to the ordeal by which the Israelites were to free themetres from the charge of blood shed within the limits of their village (Dent. xxi. ]). The system has its drawbacks, the prineipal being that the right enforcement of it depends on the honesty of the tracker, a somewhat inseeure foundation to build upon. It rests with him to deelare whether the track has been brought home to a village or not, and it dejends on the value and cogency of the arguments adduced by the villagers as to whether he can discover it on the other side, and so liberate them from responsibility."*

## Tife Central Piovinces.

Prior to 1861 these provinces formed parl of the Governments of Madras and the North-Western Provinees; but since the railway rumning between Bombay and Calcutta has cut through them, those hitherto almost undeveloped-and to most Europeans in India

[^71]almost unknown-countries have assumed great commercial importance. From the Central Provinees cotton is now sent in large quantities to Europe; and, inded, through the city of Jubbulpore more traffic is said to pass than through any Indian town, Bombay excepted. The Provinees are governed by a Chief Commissioner, and comprise an area of $8+, 963$ square miles, peopled by about $8,500,000$ people, of very diverse origins. The country has an equally varied soil and surface -table-land, river-valleys, and forest. "Within comparatively narrow limits a plateau and a plain follow each other, and again in similar sequence a larger plateau and a larger plain, ending in a mass of hill and forest, which is probably the wildest part of the whole Indian Peninsula," are the words in which the compiler of the official aceount of the Province sums up their physical geography. It may be added that even the plateaux are broken up by isolated peaks and "straggling hill ranges," and that the rivers which flow through it are, owing to the rugged character of the ground in many eases, more of the nature of mountain-torrents than the placid floods with which we are familiar in the plains of India. The seenery in sublimity cannot compare with that of the Ilimalaya, but it is pleasing and varied when compared with the monotony of the plains of Iindostan. In no other part of India is there such a varicty of soils, or such sudden transitions from the most fertile land to another tract whieh is barren to the extent of utter unproductiveness. In the pleasant winter months the traveller will pass through a region green with waving erops of corn; and while he is admiring the wonderful fertility and beauty of the country he will suddenly come upon a strip of desert land, or on belts of gravel studded with noble trees. On the Satpura platenu fine deposits of black soil may be often seen in the hollow of the green wolling basalt, surrounded on every side by regions unculitivated and uneulturable. These valley-oases are often tilled like gardens, and laden with such crops of opium poppies and sugar-cane that were it not for their inaceessibility they would tempt away the best ryots of the plains. Tea, coffee, and other delicate plants, it is thonght, might be raisel in these upland regions; but as yet the obstacles in the way of these experiments proving suceessful are so many that the plateaux are as still sparsely peopled compared with the less healthy but more easily reached country at their base. Railways and roads are, however, opening up the Central Provinces, and the recently discovered coal-fields and iron-beds promise to give new life to the wheat, rice, and cotton growers, and to the herdsmen, for whose eattle there is, owing to the great number of the inhabitants being Hindoos, little home market. In addition to the region directly under British rule, there are in the Central Provinees fifteen small fendatory States, with a population of $1,019,710$ souls, the greater number Ilindans and aborigines of varions tribes. The Central Provinees comprise the old Sagur and Nerbudda districts, the lapsed Mahratta state of Nagpore, and portion of Bundelcund. The latter country is peopled by IIndoo tribes, and, in addition to the part under the British Crown, contaius a cluster of petty native States, some of whom remained staunchly loyal to us during the Mutiny. Jnbbulpore, Sagur, Nagpore, and Raipore may be mentioned among the towns of the Central Provinces. Some of them are of importance, and the first we have already noticed as a great commercial entrepót for the cotton and other erops if the country ; but Nagpore, a large trading-place celebrated for its eloths, is the capital, and the residence of the Chief Commissioner.

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Crown, al to us 1 amongs the first cro, s of capital,

British Burmah has already been deseribed (pp. 123-120), but its elose neighbour is daily becoming of greater importance. This is the province of Assam, which was in 18.5 celed by Burmah, and in 1574 formed into a Government distinct from that of Bengal, of which up to that date it formed a part.

## Assam.

This is an outlying province, comparatively thinly peopled, and as yet but little developed, and consequently yielding but a trifling revenue compared with some of the older Governments of India. The last census gave 4,132,019 souls as its population ; and as the arrea of the country is 41,798 square miles, the number of inhabitants to the square mile camot be more than 90 , while in some of the more deusely peopled parts of Bengal from 500 to 573 persons crowd the same space.

Assam Dr. Hunter has aptly characterised as a series of fertile valleys, through which flow the Brahmapootra (p. 187), and the sixty-one smaller streans which swell its flood, after it has entered British territory from its source in the Tibetan plateau. It enters Assam by a series of waterfalls and rapids, "amid vast boulders and accumulations of rock," and the gorge through which its soûthern branch makes its appearance into the Lakhimpore District has been long a favourite place of pilgrimage fur pions Hindoos. In its conrse through Assam the river will often during the rainy season flocd extensive distriets, and in its course several islands have been formed. It finally passes into Bengal; and after spreading itself out over the alluvial distriets, and changing its name several times, it ends its course of 1,800 miles in the Bay of Bengal, close by the place where the still more celebrated Ganges pours its saered waters into the same sea. The upper part of the great Assam Valley is "varied and pieturesqne, walled in on the north and east by the Himalayas, and thickly wooded from the base to the snowline. On either bank of the Brahmapootra a long narrow strip of plain rises almost impereeptibly to the foot of the hills. Gigantic reeds and grasses oceupy the lowlands wear the banks of the great river; expanses of rice-land eome next; a little higher up, dotted with villages encireled by groves of bamboos and fruit-trees of great size and beanty, the dark forests suceecd, eovering the interior table-land and mountains. The country in the vieinity of the large rivers is flat, and impenctrable from dense juugle, with the exception of some very low-lying traets, which are either permanent marshes or are covered with water during the rains. Jungle will not grow in sueh depressions, and they are covered either with water, reeds, high grasses, or ricecultivation. On or near such open spaces are collected all the villages. As the traveller proceeds further down the valley the country gradually opens out into wide plains. In the western district of Kamrup the country forms one great expanse, with a few elevated tracts here and there, varying from 200 to 800 feet in height."

The soil of Assam is for the most part black loam, and there are few parts of the country which cannot be cultivated. The hills form the locale of some of the most flourishing tea-plantations, the valleys out of reach of the ordinary floods are favourite baunts of the native cultivators, and the delta, or low lands liable to be overspread by the rising of
the Brahmapootra, attrace at certain seasons great heris of elephants and buffaloes, as well as human inbabitants. Rice is the erop which covers most of the cultivated land, but

gUADAMA, THE LANT nCDHA.
it is used entirely within the Province. Tea is, however, extensively exported, though the plant was only discovered to be native to the country as late as 1823 , and the first twelve chests of the product of the young plantations received in England fifteen years

later. In 1870 there were 416 "garlens" open, 54,326 labourers employed monthly, and nearly $12,000,000$ pouncis of tea manufuctured. Since that dute the production has gone on steadily inereasing, so that at the present time the value of the "gardens" must be greatly enhanced. Indeed, in 1879, $35,500,000$ pounds of tea were exporlech from India, thongh it must be remembered that a great part of this comes from varions other plantations besides those of Assam. In 1880 it is believed that the yield of the lndian tea-gardens will be fully seventy millions of pounds, the rate of production, in spite of bad seasons, being thus almost doubled. Formerly the inereased tea-consumption of Engrland was shared both by China and India. In 1879, for the first time the consumption of China tea was stationary, the whole increase going to the credit of India. We may state, while tho subjeet is being touched on, that tea is grown not only in Assam proper, but in the recently annexed distriets of Cachar, Sylhet, Kangra, Dehra Doon, Chittagong, Darjeeling, the Neilgherries, and Chotah Nagpore, in the Central Provinces. In Assam alone 190,000 coolies are at work. These labourers have mostly emigrated from their own distriets to the tea-country, and in the course of a few years save a little money and return home with enhaned ideas of their position in the social seale. They thus become missionaries of social civilisation to their villages, and teach the indolent masses of Inlia that steady industry is, after all, the best way to independence, and that labour, if tronblesone at the time, is productive of rupees and the dignity whieh the possession of the Sahib's eoin always imparts.*

A writer on the Indian tea-gardens mentions that most of those employed in the Darjeeling gardens are Nepaulese, the Lepeches, or aborigines of Sikkim, not earing for labour of this kind, nor, indeed, for
 continnous work of any deseription. Some of the plantations are on the hills at elevations of from 1,000 to 6,000 feet, and others in the Terai, along the foot of the hills, at from 400 to 800 feet above the sea. The Terai, as already observed (p. 181), is a most malarious region, where in former times few Europeans, or even natives, dared at certain seasons to pass a night. Though the elearings for tea-planta-tions-the soil being superior to that of the hills-have improved its salubrity, yet the mortality through the region is still appalling. $\dagger$

Tea and rice are, however, only part of the erops of Assam, for maize, pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-eane, hemp, jute, rhea-grass, mulberries, potatees, and other crops are grown; and on the whole the Assam peasant leads a pleasant life, as life goes in

[^72]those parts of the world. His climate is grood-for the East-the soil of his country is, as a rule, fertile, and it is in no part over-populated. Indeed, most parts of the province could support ten times the present popuhtion, and the amomnt of surpilus hand earable of cultivation is immense. The result is, however, not altogether favourable. The Assamese is indolent, easy, grool-matured, and not in every case as prosperous as under more alverse circumstances he would in all likelihood have been, or which, with his advantages, he might he. But a por Assamese is not allowed to come on the publie. He is taken care of by his relatives, for the ratives are kind to their parents. and offspring and hospitable to people of their own caste. The ruling chass of the comntry evidently came across the Himalayns or from Burmah, Dut for ages a stream of immigration has also been pouring in from Bengal. Hence one of the most mumerous tribes is that of the Nadiyals, or Doms, who are originally from the Delta, where they at present constitute one of the outcast commanities of llindooism, though in Assam they affect great strietness in eating and drinking, and follow the religious teachings of the Kalitas, or ancient priests of the Ahams. There are, however, numerous other frontier tribes-Nagas, Singphos, Daphlas, Miris, Khamptis, Mataks, Abars, \&e. The Nagas, with whom of late years the frontier troops have had various petty wars, are said to number between seventy and eighty thonsand souls, but the separate tribes are independent of each other, and their power is minimised by the fact that the individual seets laite cach other much worse than they hate the linglish, who have obtruded themselves into their hills. The Singphos were in early days even more tronblesome than the Nagas, but of late years they have settled down to agriculture ; and thongh the Euglish Govermment have no very settled relations with them, in a general way they recognise its supremacy, and are by no means uncomfortable neighbours to the tea-phanters. Assum has, inteed, no mean future before it. "With its vast forests," writes Dr. Itunter, "its inexhanstible rice-grounds, its coal, iron, and tea, and the cheap means. of transit which its rivers afforl, Assam, though at present one of the most backward among the Indian provinces, has capabilities of development such as no other part of Bengal possesses."*

## Mamis.

The Presidency of Madras may be said to roughly embrace the maritime plaius in the neighthourhood of the southern promontory of India-from Gangam, south of Cuttack, and from the delta of the Mahanadi to the Malabar coast-comprising in all $137,97 \mathrm{~L}$ square miles under the direet English rule, and 9,815 of tributary States, with an entire population of nearly $35,000,000$, or about the sume number as Great Britainand Irelamd. Madras, though not so large or populons as the Presidency of Bengal, under which the political divisions alrealy named come, is the second of the great provinces of Indial. Yet it is by no means valuable in proportion to its size and

[^73]ןopulation, for thongh it possesses a coast-line of 1,730 miles, it does not boast of one
 important region, for here was lought out that dued which for ever decired whether the l'rench or Einglish were to be masters of Indin. Pombleherry, ninety miles sonth of the city of Madras, is now the principal French settlement, mal is manly inpurtant in so far that it remains a monument of what might lave been. However, n!p fo 1501, when Clive conguered Bengal, Matras was small in extent. In that yenr, lowever, the addition of the Curnatie to it raised the Presideney ulmost to its present dimensions. Its physical chatacteristies may be deseribed in genernl terms as consisting of phains and forest, with few prominent eminenees, thongh the different districts of which it consists vary considernbly in these respects. In the north are the proviness of Giajam, Vishakpatanam, Rajamahendri, and Machlipatannm; in the centre Nellore, Guntore, Chengalpatt, and Arcot; while tho southern division of the Presideney is considered to cousist of Salem, Coimbatoor, 'Ianjore, Triehinopoli, Madura, Tinnevelly, Cochin, and 'Travancore, In addition there is the Mysore division, which includes Mysore, Malabar, and Knama, and the cedel distriets of Bellary, Kadapa, and Karmul, besides Nagpore and the Nizam's teritory, which is partially nuder the control of Madras. 'The city of Madras eontains over half a million of people, and though a considerable portion of the space is occupied by gardens-or "compounds," as they are universally known in India-the area vecupies filly four miles by two and a guarter. The chief buildings face the sea, but during the hot season the temperature is very high, though modified by a pleasant sea-breeze, gratefully known to the residents as "the doctor." 'The city is a great centre of eommerce, and in railway communication with all the main lines of India, but is siugularly unfortunate in respect to its harbour-or rather, want of harbour. Three feet from the shore, the surf bursts into a long line of breakers, which thunder for miles along the coast (p. id S ). Jiven in calm weather these waves are formidable littornl barriers, but during storms the breakers extend more than three times the ordinary distance from the shore, and rise to the height of fourteen feet. At no time can European ships pass this wall of surf, though the Mussula boats and katamarans of the country ride through it on ordinary oceasions with impunity, thongh when the north-east monsoon blows even they are sometimes lost in endeavouring to keep up commmnication between the town and the ships in the roadstead. Fren the latter is open to every wind that blows, except the west, and in case a sudden gale springs up ressels at anchor are obliged to run in all haste for the open sea. When to these disadvantages there is added the faet of the city not being built on a navigable river, and possessing in the neighbouring country a soil but moderately fertile, the dilficulties under which Madras labours may be appreciated. Yet, in spite of these impediments the city does a considerable amomot of foreign trade, chiefly in rice, hides, skins, and above all in coffee, and when the long-mooted scheme of a close harbour protected by breakwaters becomes a reality, then we may expect it to contest the commereial supremaey of Calcutta and Bombay. Vizagapatam and Masulipatam are places of some commereial importance, as are also Cuddalore, 'lunguebar, Negapatam, and Tuticorin, to the south of Madras, on the Coromandel coast and the Gulf of Manaer ; Trevanderum, Cochin, Calicut, Cananore, Beypore, and Mangalore, on the Malabar coast; Vellore, on the Palar ;
'lunjore and 'Trichinopoli on the Kuvesi; Madura, 'Timivelly, and Areot are among the other notable towns. Areot was, indeed, the ancient capital of the Carmatie, and is memorable in history as the locality of Clive's famous vietory of 1751 . Vellore was the scene of the mutiny of two mative regiments in 1806; Trmupuebar was origitually a Danish town; Madura is famons for its pagodas; Timmevelly is equally celebruted for its pearl-oysters anl its mutive Christians; 'Fanjore for its religious edifices, silks, and muslins; and Trichinopoli enrries on a considerable trade in gold filagree work, eheroots, and cutlery. But these, like most of the smaller towns of the Presidency, are still

a Kitamahan in the wobl hefohe madhas,
to a great extent more native than foreign, and are little altered by the great change which have come over India within the last century. Agriculture in Madras is not at a ligh stage.* It suffers more from the unequal distribution of the rainfall than from an actual deficiency. It is common experience for the country to suffer from drought and flood in the same month; there might be drought for trenty-nine days and a flood on the thirtieth. This necessitated the employment of storage tanks, but a large part of the country is still withont them. In Madras a eomparatively small area is under forest. In twenty-five years $8,000,000$ aeres of serub jungle have been cleared and brought under the plough, with the result that many rivers that formerly flowed for

* What follows is abstracted from a Lecture by Mr. W. Robertson, Superintendent of Government Farms in Madras, delivered before tho Society of Arts, May 8th, 1880.

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ehangeis not at han from drought s and a it a large area is n cleared Howed for
nt Farms in
five months now flow for only three or four. The gross revenne from land is fonr millions. "Keminduri" estates ne held subject to the payment of a fixed sum to the Govermment;

a bagoda at tanjore,
"Iran" land is held subjeet to a nominal quit-rent, having leen granted in reeognition of serviees to the State; but the "ryotwari" tenure is the method under which lands in this Presideney are chiefly held. Possession ean be retained as loug as the rent is paid; when it is not, the right of oceupation can be sold to the highest bidder. The ryot can sell, lease, or mortgage his right of occupation. The rent, theoretically fixed for thirty years, is
supposed to represent half the net value of the produce. The rent settlement deparment of the State costs $t 30,000$ a year, but the data on which it is worked are purely empirical. The rent charged by the State is generally low, but sub-letting leads to rack-renting. As the right of oesupation can be bought and sold, the interest on the pu:ehase-money onght to be allowed for in fixing the rent. At present the man who farms most highly pays most rent. Fully 80 per cent. of the oceupied land is still unprotected by irrigation, and as an inereasing population has to depend largely on the land for their food, its prices inerease and the people suffer. The ryot has not a fixed holding, but ehanges it at pleasure, the consequence being the land is becoming exhausted, and permanent improvements are not made. The ryots of a village may not pay for more than two hundrel acres, and yet in the course of years may temporarily exhaust many hundred acres. If each cultivator were obliged to keep to a given area, the exhausting character of the lusbandry would render the soil unfit to gield the seanty produce ob+ained by the ryot. Shallow tillage prevails over the sonth of India. The native plough seems to do more work than it really does, for though it is light, owing to its bad shape, it has a great draught and does proportionately less work. The soil is not dressed with manures, although large quantities are available and wasted, and some of the most valuable is consumed as fuel. Measures could be taken to grow wood for fuel without dessening the food-producing area. All that is required is the proper application of labour, of which there is abundance. The cropping of the land is very exhausting, not so much from the crops grown being those that make great demands on the soil, but because nearly the whole are removed and not consumed by the stock of the farm. The ryot knows nothing about rotation in erops. Often he sows three or four kinds of crops together in order to secure one, should tise others fail. The lavish use of water in irrigating land does great injury to publie health, and renders the soil fit only for aquatic plants, sueh as the rice-plant. Although irrigation works have not paid well, the country would derive great benefit from the extension of irrigation schemes wisely nlanned. Wells are usually sunk at the expense of the ryots. Large tracts are well suited for growing wheat and tobacco. Ilowever, Indian, and with it Madrasee, agriculture has greatly improved within the last twenty-five years. The area under dry cultivation has, accoruing to Sir William Rose Robinson, risen from twelve mi!lions to twenty millions of acres, and the area of irrigated land has been increased ay one million and a lalf acres, or has donbled in extent. The water rent has quadrupled, so that the State has done its duty and reaped its reward, but not without benefiting the people. The land-tax is a very heavy charge, but it has steadily diminished from 3s. to 2s. 2d. per acre for dry land. This is due partly to inferior land coming under cultivation; the assessment of wet land has steadily decreased from 14 s. to 10 s. an acre.

The agricultural population of India, despite fiseal burdens and famines, is improving gradually and surely. There is no serfdom in India. The land is the property of the people, who are intensely attached to the soil; but owing to varions cirenmstances their rights as owners are curtailed, while the ernshing greed of the usurer, protected-and even aided-by the process of the English law, renders the ryot's life one continual struggle with poverty, and even fanine. The owne:s of land exereise the same rights as in England. We bave simply ratified the conditions of settlement which we found existing empirical. ting. As ney ought pays most and as an s increase ; pleasure, ments are s, and yet cultivator dry would ow tillage n it really and does quantities Measures All that croppiug that make ssumed by a he sows ail. The mers the have not , sellemes tracts are Madrasee, nder dry :lions to e million that the ple. The 5. id. per tion ; the
mproving $y$ of the ces their ted-aud struggle ts as in existing
in India. Land passes without the intervention of the State, whether the owner is a "zemindar" (proprietor), or a "ryot" (tenant farmer), thongh the inequality of tenants under the State and under "zenindars" is a grievance which demands alleviation or abrogation. It is a mistake to speak of revenue tenures, as if revenue had aught to do with title. To talk of the land-tax as rent is mischievous, and the mistake is encouraging agrarian ideas, while in the opinion of most Indian publicists it would he disastrous for the State to take the place of a landlord. In case of bankruptey the State is simply a first ereditor. To talk of tenures in India as some do is almost like treating the water-rate paper in London as a title to property. However, the landtax is a very heary fiscal demand, amounting to one-half the net produce of the land, a proportion which in England would go a long way to arrest improvement.

Some of the chicf native States of India we shall refer to at a later period of our survey. Bist, Mysore, since the year 1832, when Lord William Bentinek deposed the last ruler of the old Hindoo line, has been in all but name a British province. Voder the tutelage of the Panglish mater the provinee has inereased in prosperity. The people have become more numerous, agriculture has improved, and the revenue has increased. But in 1881 the young prince comes of age, and in aceordance with arrangements for some time in progress, Mysore is to pass at once under the thrall of its native ruler, though the change is not hailed with much satisfaction by the people of the country, who have tasted the peace and justice of European government. But Bangalore, one of the healthiest and most pleasant of the Indian sanitaria, will, with a strip of territory comecting it with the British territory, most likely be retained, while Scringapatam, ineluding the old Mindoc eapital, which has been British territory since 1799, will be given in exchange. In Mysure there are, however, many European planters whose rights must be protected. They have done much to develop the resourees of the country, which, owing to its moisture and elevation over the sea level, is not nearly so hot as might have been expectel from its position. Tigers and elephants abound in the wooded villages, and much of the coffee now exported from Madras is grown in the highlands of Mysore.

## Bombay.

When Charles II. married the Infanta of Portugal she received as dowry the then little valued island of Bombay, which was held by the Portugnese. The "merry monarch" in his turn made it over to the East India Company in 165s, and under the linglish rule it has ever sinee continued. The island of Bombay is, however, but a small part of the Presideney, whieh in extent almost equale the German Empire. The native States ocenpy about one-third of it, Sindh one-fourth, and Bombay Proper the remainder of the 155,000 miles of whieh the Presideney consists, albeit it is mueh smaller than either Bengal or Madras. The leugth of the province is $1,0.00$ miles, and its coast line, though for the most part regnlar, is broken by many fine harbours-sueh as Bombay, Kurachee, and Karwar. Of the population, which numbers over $26,000,000$, including the $9,000,000$ of the tributary States, over 70 per cent. are Hindoos; the remainder are chiefly

Mohammedans and sectaries of various faiths, savage and civilised. The physical features of the country may be summed up bricfly. Bombay Presideney consists of a long strip, of land along the rock-bound shores of the Indian Ocean. The Western Ghauts (p. 182) run in a parallel line with the coast, but in the north a continuation of the Suliman range (p. 188) separates British India from Beloochistan. The leading feature of Sindh, in the valley of the Indus, is the low range of sand-hills; after crossing which we come to the isolated hills of Kachh and Kattiawar, and then to the rugged and mountainous country south of the Tapti, the hills of which sometimes overhang the ocean, and generally run parallel to it, at a distance nowhere exceeding lifty miles. These are the northern extremity of the Sahyadri, or Western Ghauts. In the vicinity of these hills, particularly in the north, the

a hindoo fagoda at malabir hille, near mombay.
country is rugged and broken, and distinguished by the presence of isolated peaks, masses of rock, :and spurs, which, running eastward, form water-shed's for the great rivers of the Deccan. Sindh, Gujerat, the Concan, the Deccan, and the Carnatic are the chief level tracts. Sindh-ilso written Sinde or Scinde-is in leed a flat, arid land, where crops ean only be reared by irrigation. Gujerat is for the most part a rich plain, and the Concan is a rreek-intersected, rugged, and "diffieult" country. The plains of the Deecan are traversed ly great risers, but as the rainfall is uncertain vegetation is usually blank or absent during the greater part of the year. Finally, the Carnatic, or country south of the River Krishna, consists, to use Dr. IInuter's words, "of extensive tracts of black or cotton soil, in a ligh state of cultivation." The great river of Western India is the Indus ( $p .183$ ), but the Narbada, the Tapti, and other minor streams intersect the region we have now entered upon, and from the hill ranges at ecrtain seasons of the year wild mometain torrents rush brawling to the sea (p. 182). The Manchar Lake, situated on the right bank of the Indus, will, duriug the
features g strip p. 182) n range in the isolated south of rallel to , of the rth, the

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 is of the ief level crops can acan is a traversed t during Krishna, igh state Narbada, and from o the sea ring therainy season, sometimes eover an area estimatel to contain 150 square miles; but the Kann, or "Run" of Cutch, is the most remarkable physical feature of Western India, This depression occupies an area of 8,000 square miles, and forms the western boundary of the province of Gujerat; but whether it is an arm of the sea whenes the water has receded, or a lake whose seaward barrier has been swept away, is not yet settled. In all likelihood it originated in some terrestrial convulsion, by which a great tract of country was lowered. At all events it is, according to the season of the year, "a salt marsh, an inland lake, or an arm of the sea." In the dry season it is strewn with salt, which is collected and sold extensively throughout the Presidency; when flooded it converts the territory of the Cutch (or Kachh) into an island.

The forests of Bombay cover the hills throughout almost their entire extent, but those of the alluvial plains are confined to a comparatively small area of Sindh or close to the banks of the Indus. Mineral wealth is absent from Bombay, except in the form of building stones and the iron ore of Teagar, which, moreover, cannot be smelted on an extensive scale, owing to the absence of fuel.

Most of the Indian crops grow well in different parts of the country, and the wheat of Siudh and Gujerat is exported in large quantities to Earope. Barley is also grown in the northern parts of the country, and cotton, sorghum, bajra (Ifolcus spicatus), sugar, rion, and various pulses oceupy a large acreage, though none of these are grown to anything like the extent they might be under a better system of culture and by a people more energetic. At one time cotton-weaving was extensively carried on, but since the influx of cheap Manehester manufactures this undertaking has declined to very small proportions. However, in localities the distance of which from railways has lessened foreign competition, excellent printed goods are manufactured, and in Bombay and other parts of the Presidency cotton-mills have been ereeted. Silk fabrics, carpets, rugs, gold and silver cloth, embroideries, pottery, brass and copper utensils, jewellers' work, \&e., also occupy the attention of a considerable portion of the population. Bombay is, indeed, destined in time to be a large manufacturing region. Already the large steam-mills of the cities are turning out a class of goods which have almost driven the inferior qualities of Euglish fabries out of the market; and in time, as the cost of European superintendence and the importation of machinery are lessened, they will be able to render the country almost independent of English cloths. The Bombay spinners are handicapped by the cost of fuel; but, on the other hand, they are favoured by the abundance of cheap skillel labour around them, and by the fact that, now that railways and steamers bring nearly all parts of the comutry into rapid communication with each other, they do not require to pay heavy freights for bringing their raw material to the factories, nor to pay equally heavy taxes on the manufactured article before it can reach its purehasers.

Bombay has different climates in different parts of the country. Sindh is as dry and hot as the deserts of Afriea. During the six sultriest montlis of the year the water of the Indus at Inaidarabad reaches blood-heat, and in Upper Sindh the thermometer has been known to record $130^{\circ}$ in the shade. The highlands of the Deccan are, on the contrary, pleasant during most part of the year, as are the Mahratta country and the hills where the Europeans seek a refuge during the "heated term" 190
(p. 18S). But in Cutch and Gujerat the temperature is high, and in Conean, owing to the great rainfall, is even more exhausting ; while in Bombay island the weather for a great part of the year is exceedingly oppressive to Europeans, even though the heat is tempered by the seat-breezes. From June to October, except in Sindh, where the south-west monsoon exerts little influence, travelling, owing to the volumes of rain which accompany that wind, is difficult and unpleasant.

Bombay island and town is, however, infinitely the most important part of the Presideney, albeit the territory now comprised in it formed in earlier times several distinct Hindoo kingdoms. The eity of Bombay-that is, Bom Buhea, the Portuguese for "grod port"-is the most important outlet of Western India, and the great emporium of its trade with the outside world. The system of railways pours into it the trade of the north, the valley of the Ganges, the Central Provinces, and Madras, though the island on which it is situated is not over twenty-two square miles in area. In reality, however, as it is now connected with the maiuland by the railway causeways, the term "island" is no longer applicable to the plain enclosed by two parallel lines of hills on which the city is built. When first it passed into the hands of England it was considered but a poor dowry to come with a princess; but before long it rose to be one of the chief Indian settlements, a position it still keeps, in spite of some reverses which it has sustained. Bombay has no great navigable rivers flowing past its wharves, a has Calcutta, which may be said to be the entrepot for both the Ganges and the Brahmapootra. Neither is it, like the capital of Bengal, the outlet for a variety of crops, cotton, grain, and opium being its chief exports. Yet it is rapidly becoming the chief commercial city of India, and has already a population of 650,000 , whose home is east amid a pleasant paorama of sea, mountain, and islets, the approach to Bombay from the ocean being one of the many bits of seenery which have been compared to the Bay of Naples. 'lhe streets of the city are musually well built, and some of the European hotels and commercial buildings are of a size quite unusual for India. The native bazaars are also fine buildings ; and though the dwellings of the Europeans, which lie at a distance from the native and eommereial quarters, are not so imposing as those of Calcutta, some of the residences, espeeially those on Malabar IIill (p. 232), are sumptuous homes, and so far as picturesque surroundings and position are concerned, may hold their own with those in similar suburbs in any town of IIindostan. They are, as is usual in India, each surrounded with a "compound," and are well suited to the climate of the country and the habits of the people. Among the most enterprising citizens are the Parsees (p. 236), the remnant of the ancient fire-worshippers of Persia who fled here in early times. They are the chief bankers, merchants, and shipbuilders, and in loyalty and public spirit yield to no class of the community, native or foreign. No other city in India-this is, I believe, generally conceded, in spite of the lively rivalry which prevails among the different Presidencies and Provinces -approaches Bombay in enlture and social progress. Its enterprise is also great, and its prosperity equal to its efforts to attain it. Its water-supply is brought from Vehar, fourteen miles distant, and is abondant and good. Six miles from the city are the Cavos of Elephanta, which, though now in decay, are still wonderful specimens of the skill and patienee of the old Buddhist and Jain architects, who hewed them out of the
solid roek. In the neighbonring isle of Salsette are the eave-temples of Kanhar (pp. 2:37, 241), which, though worth a visit, are, however, unequal in grandeur to those at Karii, on the rond to Poonah. This eity, seventy-four miles south-eastward from Bombay, was in earlier days the capital of the Mahratta Peishwas. It is, however, no.. fallen into decay, though it still contains 100,000 inhabitants, and is the military head-quarters of Western India, its position-l, S 00 feet above the sea-rendering it more healthy than Bombay or any of the coast-lying towns. Nassil., a saerel place of the Hindoos, Surat, where was established the first English faetory in the Mogul's dominions, and Ahmadabad, an ancient walled city, may be noted as other towns of Bombay possessing much interest. But Haidarabad, near the head of the delta of the Indus, Kurrachee, the chief port of the same provinee, almost at the western extremity of India, and to a lesser degree Shikarpore-thongh Kurrachee has to a great extent eelipsed it-are the most important places commercially in the valley of the Indus, while Meerut, Jacobabad, and Dudur are all of more or less interest. Haiderabad-not to be confounded with Hydrabad, the Nizam's metropolis-was the old capital of Sindh, and is still noted for its swords, matehlocks, aud other arms. On the bank of the Indus opposite to it is Kotra, the upper terminus of the Sindh Railway, and it is in communication with Kurrachee, 100 miles distant, and other cities of the valley by steamers, railways, and native craft. Kurrachee, though surrounded by a sandy desert, and only a few years ago a collection of mud huts and poor houses, is now the main outlet for the trade of Sindh and the Punjab, aud, owing to these cireumstances and its accessibility during the prevalence of the south-west monsoon, has within the last three deeades increased greatly. More than 1,000 vessels, ineluding coasters, yearly enter its harbour-so called; and when the railway system of the Punjab and Sindh is completed Mr. Andrews believes that it will command mueh of the trade that now finds its way from the inner country to Calcutta on the one haud and to Bombay on the other. Shikarpore, of whieh Captain Burton has given so eharacteristically graphic an account, is perhaps an even more typieal Sindhian city thau any of those we have noticed; and as a visit to it will give us an opportunity of noting some of the habits of the East, we may as well conelude the chapter with a notice of it and its people. It is twenty miles beyond Sukkur, and the moment the travelle: alights in its busy streets he feels that he is very far away from the life of the West. True, the "Sahib," as the Englishman is conventionally termed, is here, with his pith helmet and his puggaree, his lordly stride and his unmistakable air of master. The Sahib collector is punishing the evil and leaving the well alone, but above ill, gathering the dnes of the great Maharavee and her soubhadhar, the Viceroy in Caleutta. There is also the Captain Salib chaffering in the bazar about some trille which only a few years ago his predecessors of the army of Ranjeet Singh would have taken with seant courtesy and no aches of conseience. But the "phunger" of Jacob's Horse gool-naturedly wearies himself with cheapening a few rupees off the sword he is buying from the Lahore armourer, and meantime treads gingerly, lest his spurs should seratel the rank crop of maked legs in their vicinity.

The Captain is at home, and, from the respeetful salaams and teeth-showing which meet him on every side, seems a familiar personage. We are making a journcy in
imagination, and are not therefore bound down by the exigencies of chronology. l'aring ne charge of anachronism, we may accordingly hazard a conjecture that the polyglot otlieer who eseorts us through the Shikarpore bazaar is called Richard Burton, a well-known, greatly feared, and withal a much-respected name in the "Unbappy Valley," and in many other parts of the world which we shall never look upon. The student of mankind may here have a peripatetic museum. All India which loves


DARSEE COTTON MERCHANTS OF DOMRAY.
gold mohurs, rupees, or amnas eongregate thither, and every race from Cape Comorin to the Ilimalayas, from Calcutta and Bombay, defiled of the Infidel, to Holy Bokhara, the Mece: of the Asiatic Mohammedan, jostle each other, intent on gain, pleasure, or the mere gratification of that euriosity which is the least of Oriental passions. It is a populous city of merchants, bankers, money-changers, dealers in every description of wares under the Indian smm, or which the wants of $300,000,000$ people can call for. The town is built on a low-lying plain, surrounded by gardens and trees, which nevertheless do not prevent the entrance or the exit of the all-abounding dust, thongh they relieve with iheir tinge of freshness the hot glare and glitter of a sub-tropical town.

There is a broken mud wall crumbling into monldering fragments, and the phaces where eight great shady Eastern gates had been, mate memorials of departed days and of the stronger arm that has now interposed itself between the citizens and their foes. The sububs are large and stragrgling, and the streets-need we say it?-are narrow, crowded, and maclean. The houses are mostly of woodwork and sun-dried brieks, with low verandahs, and unglazed holes for windows. Public buildings there are none, and the


ENTRANCE TO THE CIVETEMILES OF KANHARI, INLE OF NALSETTE.
bungalows of the city's masters-civil and military-are outside the town. A few mosques tell of the prevalent faith of the people; lint in Shikarpore assemble men of many creeds, and a good many whose god is Cent.-per-ccut., the presiding deity of the Great l Bazaar, which stretches across nearly the whole breadth of the eity. It is a long, tall-walled passage, narrow, darkened, and guarded against the afternoon sun by mats laid over the beams which comncet the houses on either side of it. At 4 p.m. it is High 'Change; then it is that the greed of filthy luere runs its course.

Here is the tlat-faced, broad-limbed little Brahui from the mountains of Beloochistan
-subjects of the Khan of Khelat, in mueh the same degree as are that knot of Afghans settling the price of their camels lieges of the Ameer of Cabul: thut is to say, they are only nominally so, and in reality, when out of the range of his smooth-bore caunon, do pretty well what seems good or bad in their own cyes, within the cireuit of their jezail slugs. The Afghans talk eagerly together, are energetic in their gestures, and thongh we do not understand what is the subject of discussion in Pushtu, when we look at their fierce flashing eyes we reeognise the prudenee of that regulation whieh compels them to deposit their arms in a place where they are not so likely to come in contaet with their neighbour's fifth rib as if kept in their girdles. The Belooch is a freebooter, and eyes the possible plunder around with a sharp professional eye. A Sindhian gentlemau, in brocaded cap and chintz-padded robe, passes by, preeeded by a running footman, who pushes aside the mourtaineer, and, judging from the wild-eat expression in the man's face, would probably have been paid for his insolence had the "eharay" or single-edged dagger been as handy as in days prior to the British "Raj" it was. Shoulder to shoulder stand a brawny Mollah or priest from Herat, with a Halji who has been to Meeca, and if the Persian proverb be true, a rogue among rogues. The rough-tongued Pathans stand bargaining with smoothspoken Persians; "Candalar meets Mooltan, intent on preventing cheating by cheating; the tall turban of Jesulmere nods to the skull-cap of Peshin; and the white calioo sleeve of Guzerat is grasped by the iron claw of Kelat. Here a greasy Moslem cook pours a ladleful of thick oil upon a fizzing mass of kababs, whose greasy streams, floating down the bazaar, attract a crowd of half-famished ryots to enjoy in imagination 'the pleasures of the table.' Here a Hindoo vendor of dried fruits, sugar, seeds, spices, opium, and hemp-the tout ensemble fragrant as an apothecary's shop in the dog-days-disposes of his wares to a knot of Jat ladies, with a pair of seales and a set of weights which would make Justiee look ber sternest. And here grim Eastern Cyclopsblacksmiths, tinmen, and armourers-are plying their elanging, elashing, ringing trade in an atmosphere of $150^{\circ}$ and in the proximity of a fire that would roast a lamb." All is noise, yells, threats, counter-threats, chaffering, and din indescribable. Two crafty IIindoos settle a bargain with their hands concealed beneath a sheet, but otherwise not one copper coin changes owners without a dozen offerings and rejections, and an amount of bad language which weuld even appal a frequenter of Billingsgate, could he-or sheunderstand a tithe of the babel around. Bullion is all-valuable in the East; time is of mo aceount. All the nincty-and-nine smells of the world are here, and at least one quite peeulinr to the place itself. The ear is sick of noises: the nose suffers from the odours of the Orient, the lings are poisoned with the stifling air : the very cye revolts at the sight of what it lights on.

As we pass out of the eity to the Captain Sahib's bungalow we are struck with the appearanee of some fresh arrivals who are dismounting from their eamels. They have women and children with them in abundance, old men and young ones, all very inde-pendent-looking, but some of them, if the truth were known, slaves bought in the Khivan market, eaptives in the Persian valleys of the Turkoman bow and spear; tut all are under a head, who direets the encampment and marshals the patriarchal-looking ooth-bore ircuit of gestures, tu, when egulation not so - girdles. a sharp ed robe, teer, and, been paid in days Mollah or roverb be h smoothcheating; lite calico slem cook y streams, nagination ar, seels, the dog1 a set of Cyelopstrade in mb." All wo crafty erwise not on amount -or shet; time is least one from the revolts at
ruck with They have very indeit in the : But all al-looking
throng. They are the Lohance merehants, the wandering traders of Afghanistan and Central Asia, who yet eonduet their business in the primitive fashion which prevaited in the days when Mareo Polo pilgrimed unto the Great Khan of Jartary, or in that still remoter day when the merehantmen going "down into Egypt" invested in Joseph as part of their venture. These Lohunee traders-or Provindiahs, as they are called-have their homes about Chuznee, where they spend the summer. They then descend the passes before they are blocked up by the snow, between Ghaznee and the Indus, in vast caravans of eight or ten thousund souls, the whole tribe moving bodily, men, women, dildren, and eattle, earrying their goods on camels and ponies. At Derajat they leavo their aged people and children in black felt tents, with their flocks and herds in the rich pastures bordering on the Indus, while the able-bedied men-who must deposit their weapons at the first frontier British post-push across the Punjab with their goods for sale either in that provinee, in Sindl, or in the cities on the banks of the Ganges, where their earpets, felts, wool, bullion, and ehrysolite rosaries always find a ready market. These old-world merchants are found far afield, and are not above taking advantage of steamboats and railway trains to help them on their journeys. In the bazaars of Delhi and Agra, Allahabad, Cawnpore, Mirzapore, and even Calcutta, Bombay, Rangoon, and Assam, the shepherd-traters-distinguished by their tall figures, independent bearing, and pre-eminently dirty persons-can be seen. They push abead of the main body, taking with them a few samples, letters of credit, \&c., and arrange bargains preparatory to the arrival of the earavans or kafilas. In the Bolan Pass, which is their usual route to India, they are liable to be attacked by the wild mountaineers; but, as a rule, their numbers enable them to compound with these clansmen for a reasonable amount of black-mail. Sir Bartlo Frere tells of the wife of an "eminent merchant" of this tribe, whose husband had been detained longer than he expeeted at Delhi, offering the Kafila-Bashee, or head of the caravan, demurrage at the rate of 10,000 rupees $(£ 1,000)$ a day to defer the upward march of the caravan, so as to enable her lord to rejoin it, as she knew that, if left behind, he would be unable to follow them through the passes except at great risk to lis life and property. 'These merchants are many of them very wealthy, for they do an amnal trade of at least a million and a half sterling. Eastward they go to Caieutta, and westwarl to the great market of Bokhara. Here they bring English cloths, sugar, indige, Benares broeades, gold thread and lace, leather, groceries, and drugs; and carry hack to India Russian gold and silver wire, raw silk and silk fabries, carpets, Afgran postins or pelisses, rosaries, horses, almonds, raisins, preserved fruits of many kinds, furs, bullion, and such-like articles. With these men we may journey as far as we choose to go, provided, firstly, that we pay them; secondly, that they care to take the risk of escorting a possible spy; and thirdly-which is our business-that we are willing to risk being flayed alive or tortured to death in a pit of sheep-ticks, as were poor Conolly and Stoddart. These provisees are easily cvercome, for we live in mythical times of piping peace, and are not troubled with the difficulties that encompass more material wanderers in Upper Asia. But we must have money. We may pay the Provindiah his baksheesh, and pile on our camels stores to last us till we arrive at a place where they can be conveniently renewed. But the moment we cross the British boundary, and
even long before we do so, we shall have a hundred expenses to meet, presents to make, provisions to buy for our return journey, goods to purehase, and what in span are pleasantly called "gratifications" to bestow on the itching palms of sirdars and Khans and greedy chiefs gatore.

We must therefore have money, but not coin; fur we are entering a land wher the sight of a gold piece will be the most vertain method of meeting the fite whid the gods decree for those they love. As we have as yet mo deside for a sudlen dearh, we seck a "shroff," who will give us a letter ui credit-some kind of rircular note, "of' no value to any one but the owner." We have no difliculty in obtainiug this, mad, inded, in Shikarpore bankers are proportionately nore mumerons than in the City of London, and for our purposes infinitely more so.* We are recommended to one as more than ordinarily honest-or, rather, it would be hetter to say, less thievish than usual-that is, he will be strietly upright in his dealings so long as his eredit is at stake, but when self-interest will allow him to steal, then the client has really mo chance with him. He is a miserable, wizened-looking wretel, on whose countenance ararice has set its scal, and who, though probably worth a lac or two of rupees, $\dagger$ will submit to almost any indignity to increase the hoard. His turban and waist-cloth were once white (though not recently); his hand holds a rosary; behind his ear is a long reed pen, and over his shoulder be wears the thread of the "thriec-born." Ite is a 13 ralmmin, and therefore scorns the rest of the world-and lis present eustomer among the rest; yet he cringes to us, as be would eringe to the meanest Sindlian who ever wore a turban, if he saw his way to make an anna out of him. The Moslem famaties curse his shaven pate, and though he could buy the principality of the momutaneers who insult him, yet nothing in the word would induce him to return insult for insult-nothing, indeed, but an attempt to steal one of the piles of copper or siber hefore him. Then all the grods of his fathers, all the incarnations of Siva and Brahma and Vishnu would not sullice to ease the llindon Shylock's mind of the latent execrations with which it is laden. The Hindoo Shikarporees are pre-eminently bankers, and in less than a century-for they were only allowed to migrate hither in 1750 -have extended their operations over half of $\Lambda$ sia. From Chima to 'Turkey, from Astrakhan to Hyderabad, a Shikarporee letter of eredit can be easily cashed in almost any considerable town. The Shikarpore Ilindoos, whom Timur Shah, the Afghan monareh, first permitted to settle here, chiefly belonged to Lohana and Bhatia eastes, eommon in Srinde and the sonthern part of the P'majab, and by their enterprise have made Shikarpore what it is. Withont question or demmr, six months' journey from this remote Sindhian bazar, the signature of that miserable-looking wreteh-t" whom, not withont forebodings as to their latter end, we have pail our rupees-will be honoured by the condeseending cashier of the Agra or London and Delhi, or by some shrivelled, rag-enveloped "anatomy" in Cabul or Candahar. His cireular note is called a

* In thes notes, throughout which it is harsly neeessary to say I owe nearly everything to Cuptain Burton's whos on Sinth, the famons latzar at shikapore is spoken of as it used to be some years aurus. Kurranhe has, however, now absorbed much of its trade, and in time will supersede it as the meeting-pheo of the mations.
$\dagger$ A lac is 100,000 : a crore is $10,000,000$.
ents tu 1 ぶpain ars alld
whero which death, otr, " of is, :nnd, City of wre than -that is, nut when im. He its scal, nost any (thourr) over his re scolils to us, as is way to hough lie the world steal one all the Hindon Shikarallowed om Chima be easily ur Shah, (d) Bhatia enterprise jonrney reteh-is ees-will by some called a
to Captain years ary. reting-phe


THE PHENCIPAL GROTRO OF KANHAMI, OF SALSETTE,
"Hundi," and is written in excerable calligraphy on a piece of hank-note paper, but the reader will see that it is so worded as to put the possibility of "raisiur" out of the fiell. Forgery is equally diflieult, for the note has private marks, only known to the "shroff"
and his correspoments, who would accordingly instantly detect the most cheverly-manufactured "Ilundi," llere is a free translation:-
" 11. 'True is the deity Sri.*
" 1 . 'to the worthy of every respeet: may you be always in good health. May you always be happy, Mr. Brothar Jesu Mal.
"d. From Shikarpore, written by Kisordas; remi his eompliments.
"3. And further, sil, this one hundi of 1,000 rupees I have written on you in numerals, and in letters rupees 1,000 , and the half, which is five hundred, of which the double is one thousand complete: dated............o $\qquad$ in the year of Vikrmaditya; $\dagger$ to be paid at $\qquad$ after the term of: $\qquad$ days to the bearer: the money to be of the curreney of the place. In the yeur of Vikramadityn, \&e. \&c."

If you have no money you can be "aceommodatel." A "Sahib" is generally considered good semurity, though to be sure, if you are bound to a region of evil report-stay to Cabul- yon must pay something extra-say lib per cent. For what says the Sindhian proverb: "Meet a cobra and an Afghan-kill the Afghan!" However, we have no intention of testing the wislom of the adviee, for we have still something to sny about India proper, and about the tributary States, foreign settlements, and linances of that country.

## Chapter X.

## Indin: Native States: foneige Possessions.

In the preeeding chapter, while speaking of the different Presidencies and previnces, we have had occasion more than once to refer to native States comprised within their bounds. These States are, in the vast majority of eases, only nominally independent. They are ruled by native prinees, who owe allegianee, either as tributaries or as direct suffragans, to England, the cases in which they are actually "sovereign powers" being few. Even then, they must eonduct themselves in a manner agreable to the English "raj," otherwise they speedily diseover that their independenee is little more than a paper euphemism. In the brief sketeh which follows the admirable aecount of Colonel Malleson will for the most part be followed, though in its compilation other authorities have also been consulted. The exhaustive work of the gallant guardian of the Maharajah of Mysore is, however, so complete that it was almost impossible to glean any facts into our narrow compass that had not already been found

[^74]and sifted in that treatise.* Aceordingly, following his armagement, we may first notice those States which are in subsidiary nllinnee with the British Govermment; next the mediatised mud minor provinces, those which, though " under the smeminty off, are mot in direct alliance with, the British Government;" and fimally-but in another chapter-Beloochistan, Nepaul, (iurkha, Sikkion, Bhotan, Afghmistun, and Persin, which in different degrees may bo said to be independent. Beloohistan and the now broken-up kinglom of Afghanistan man hardly be saill to be their own masters. Nepaul and the three States classed with it are more so, white Persin is, of course, though in close relation with Indin, a power-theoretieally, at least as mueh independent as lussin and China, both of which are beeoming our elose neighbours. Burmah and Siam we have already fully considered, so that their relative degrees of independence need not be further diseussed.

There may be said to bo four great epochs in Indian history. The first is that ear! whistorical one in which the Hindoo raco livel more or less peaceably, and advanced to the high stage of eulture which we know it possessed at the period when first we became acquainted with it, from more exaet sources than traditionary poems and monments, which toll a tale after the manner in which the questioner chooses to interpret them. When Mahmad of Ghazne invaded the comntry, in the eleventh century, the Moslem epoch hegan. Under his rule the native kingrlom-and more especially those peopled by the tine race of Rajputs-enjoyed a great degrec of prosperity and even of independence, $n$ favour which in varying degrees was extended to then under his more or less able successors. But with the rise of the warlike Mahrattas the Mogul Empire fell, and with it tho large measure of freedom enjoyed by the other native princes. The Mahrattas continued to rule over large portions of the country, either direetly or as suzerains, until, in 1818, the Jnglish, for good and all, ernshed them. From that date the British era for India may be dated.

Little by little-and sometimes very rapidly-the area of the native States of India has been, by the force of circumstanees, circumseribed, nor unless some great misfortune befalls our race is it likely that the country under the rule of Hindoo or Mohammedan prinees will ever be much extended. Indeed, the chances are that the little kingdoms will merge into the greater empire, either by the wish of the people or by the folly of their sovereigns, and thus be fortunate enongh to share directly in the newer and better rigime which may in the future dawn on India under the wiser rule of its latest conquerors. However, there are still 600,000 square miles-three times the area of the German Empire, nearly five times that of the United Kingrom, three times that of France, and wot much short of a sixth as great an area as is comprised by the United States-under native princes. This region is inhabited by nearly $50,000,000$ peopleas many as there are in North America, and fully $15,000,000$ more than are contained in the British Islands-comprising some of nearly all the nationalities which find their homes within the bounds of Hindostan. They do not, it is almost needless to say, live all in one great tract of country, but are seattered over the whole of the empirehere a small kingdom and there a large one, in the midst of this Presidency several,

* "An Historical sketch of the Native States of India in subsidiary Allianee with the British Government" (1870).

and tacked on to the borders of that other province far off, a mative State, inhabited by a people speaking the same tongue, but having no conneetion with it. However, these mative territories, as Colonel Malleson hats justly observed, form so many eentres where the Sikh, the Mohammedam, the Lajput, the Mahratta, and the Dravidian-that is, the most primitive stock of all-can each bring out to the best advantage whatever may be peculiar and excelient in his national character and national institutions, "under the generalising influence of English principhes and English civilisatien." Viewed from an ethnological point of view, they may be classed as follows:-(1) There is an Indo-Chinese group, such as Manipore and the other small prineipalities bordering Assam and Lower Bengal; (2) There are aboriginal chieftains in Chota--Nagpore, Orissa, Jeypore, and the Central Provinces; (3) The comntries which girdle the Western Himalayas, from Kashmar to Gurwhal and Rampore, ar, for the most part Hindoo; ( 1 ; Beyond the Indus there are Aghan tribes; (5) There are the Sikh States of Sihrind, sueh as Puttiala, Jhind, Nabha, Nahan, and Kotgarh; (6) There are Mohammedan States, like Bhawnlpore and Khypore, in or close to Sindh; (7) There are the Mahratta States of Indore and (iwalior, and the States and chieftainships of Malwa and Pundelkhund; (S) The Rajpoct kingdoms of Rajpootana; (!) The clnster of little Sates in Kattiawar and the northern balf of Bombay; (10) Kolapore and the other Mahata States of the Concan ard Western Ghauts; (11) The Mohammeda': kingdo:a of Myderabad; and finally, (12) the old Malayan States of Travaneore and Cochin, in Sonthern India, to which may be added the Hindoo State of Mysore. But the rulers and the maled are not always of the same race and religion. For example, a Hindoo rajah reigns in Travaneore; a Mohammedan begum governs Bhopal; a Sikh dynasty sits on the ancient throne of Kashmir; Scindia's subjeets are for the most part not Mahnattas; and in the great Moslem kingdom of Hyderabad the Hindons aud Dravidians ontnumber the followers of the Nizam's faith. The rulers of a llindoo dynasty are styled Rajah, or Maharajah, Rama, and Rao, or if a female, Ranee; while their "Barons" are Thakures and Sirdars. The Mohammedan prinees are, on the other hand, Sultans, Nawabs, Ameers, or Khans, the latter title being also one applied to men of mank of the blood royal or otherwise.* Of the native States more or liss under the control of the Indian Govermment, there are about 356,000 square miles which the Govenor-General takes direct cognizance of ; the LientenantGovernors, or Commissioners of Bengal, the North-west Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces, control respectively, 79,000, 6,000, 44,000 , and 28,000 sfuare miles; while the Governors of Madras and Bombay rule indirectly, the first over 32,000 , and the senond over 72,000 square miles of feudatory native States.


## Rajpootana.

The prinees of this wild country are among the most important of the tribntary sovereigns of India. Much of the region is uninhabited, consisting mainly of rocky hills and broad saudy plains tenanted only by widd beasts, though the fertile tracts

* Andrewn: lib. cit., pp. 197, 198.
support herds of sheep, horses, and camels, and yield erops of corn, tobaceo, sugar, cotton, opium, \&e. The people are for the must part Hindoos, and are noted for their high spirit, pride, and comage. Oocleypore, or Mewar, whose Rana (pp. 21t, 21s) ranks highest among the Rajpot princes, is one of the most important of the Stater, but the enlightenment of the Maharajah of Jeypore has given his State and eapital a distinguished plaee among the progressive native kingdoms. Jeypore, indeed, is ahmost a modern eity, and is certainly one of the hamdsomest in India.

Joudhpore, or Marwar, is the largest of the Rajpoot kingdoms, though not the most populous. Bundi, Kota, Jhalawar, Tonk, Kamuli, Kishugarh, Dholpore, Sirohi, Bharatpore, and Alwar are all States of more or less consequence or pettiness, while Bikanir and Jesulmere, though each with a larger area than Oodeypore, are much less thicisly peopled or prosperons. They lic among the sand-hills of the "Great Indian Desert," and hence are isolated from the teeming regions to the north, east, and sonth of them. Dongapore is a very petty State, having not more than 100,000 inhabitants, but its Rawnl, or chicf, elaims to represent the senior branch of the Honse of Oodeypore. Banswara is not much larger, though it, again, has a large number of fendatories who owe direct allegiance to its Rawul. Partabgarh is about the same size and wealth as the two just mentioned, and, like them, adopted Britial protection in order to eseape from the grinding yoke of the Mahatta prinees who, uthe latter days of the Mogul Empire, were its virtual sovereigns. Like most of his compeers, he has also been rewarded for his loyalty during the Mntiny by receiving the right of adoption-a privilege which is regarded very highly by the chiklless Indian kings. Next to this, precelence at a durbar, or leve, and the number of gmas which he is to receive as a salute, most excite the languid minds of these potentates, and the squabbles and heartburnings over this subject make the life of the Viceroy's master of the ceremonies akin to that of a toad under the harrow. The inhabitants of many of the group of States last mentioned belong, it may be remarked, to the Jats, a race which some ethoologists will insist on claiming as the progenitors of the Enropean gipsies.

Cevthal Indel and Mawa.
The chief of these kingdoms are (iwalior, or the Dominions of Scindia, and Indore, or the Dominions of Holkar. Gwalior is a Mahratta kingdom, which after many contests with the English, remainet their fendatories up to 18.5. In that dismal year the yompr Mahamah Jaiaji Seimelia, after having failed to keep his contingent faithful to their licers lords, fad to thee from his kinglom. But he soon regained power, and ever since has had honours heaped upon him, receiving, among other distinctions, a general's commission in the Britieh amm: Some doults have, however, been thrown on his loyalty. It is certain that he resents as a grievance the presence of a British garrison in the great rock fortress overtooking his capital, and it is no secret that for years past law has been quietly putting all his male adult suljeets through the army, while still keeping "p, the perfectly unnecessary force which he is allowed by the terms of inis treaty with the Jinglish Govemment. These mative armies are indeed sad nousense. 'ithey are not reguired. Is the tributary princes can neither go
to war nor be invaded so long as they remain faithful to their suzemin, we can but conelude that they only hope to be able to work future mischief when thoy dixplay anxicty to inerease their forees. At best the system is extravagant, and very ofpressive to their people. However, the armies are usually such a moly of incompetent ragamuflins that it is donbtful whether they eould ever be effectire for evil, or-what probably concerns us most, since it has lately heen the fashion for the fendatories to proffer their services to us-for good, as allies. Indose is rubd ly a descendant of Mulhar Rao Holkar, a Mahratta of the shepherd caste. Mis, conntry contains over $S, 000$ square miles, and has a population of some half a million, heing thus only about a fifth of the size and populousness of Scindia's. Holkar's troops rebelled during the Mutiny, but it is believed that he himself is well disposed to England. His tastes, molike Scindia's, are not military, but commercial. He takes a keen interest in revenue questions, and if all tales are ture, in a "eotton deal" is sharper than is always agreable to the other party to his bargains. Ilis late Prime Minister (Sir Madhava Rao) is universally acknowledged to be one of the most acute and accomplished men of his race, and to have conduced greatly to the prosperity which the kingdom at present enjoys. Bhopal is a considerable State, being rather smaller, but more thickly populated, than Indore. The present ruler is a Begum, or queen, who governs the country with great prudence and wisdom. Dhar is a smaller State, ruled by a Rajah of the "Puar" family; and Dewas is a still timier one, having a mandation of only 25,000 . But it is, aecording to an ohd custom, govened by two Rajahs, with equal power, thongh, as is by no means uncommon in India, they have no legitimate male chidren. Indeed, in this dynasty there is no record of any such heirs ever having been born, the line being kept up by adoption of children. Jaora is a larger State, and its Nawab-who in the troublous times of the Mntiny was the only chicf who boldly took the field with Sir Hemry Durand-has ever been on exeellent terms with us.

## Bundelkhund and Westers India.

Conder this division-Bundelkhund-comes Rewa, a large prineipality, containing some 1,300,0100 people; Urehah, or Tehri, with less than a sixth of that number of subjects; Datia, still smaller, and Samptar with 30,000 people. In Western India the kingdom of Baroda or the dominions of the Gaikwar ( $p, 253$ ) is the most inportant, and that whieh, owing to the esents of the last few years, has attracted most attention in England. The State comprises 1,500 square miles, with a population of $2,000,000$. Like most of the modern native kingrloms, Barodia was carved out of the Mogul Empire by a suecessful soldier of fortune-1amaja (fakwar, or" the Herdsman "-a title his suceessors have ever since proudly retained. The late ruler, being more than suspected of an attempt to poison the British Resident at his court, was deposed in 1575, and a child belonging to another branch of the family placed on the throne, moder the tutelage of Sir Madhava Rao, whose abilities had been already proved during the period in which he administered the Governments of Travancore and Indore. Kollapore, another considerable kingdom, is still geverned by a deseendant of the famous

Sivaji (p. 20; ). Sawunt Wari is a small principality, whose ruler is kept under strict surveillanee by the English Government; and Cutch has nearly half a million of people, a small number compared with the extent of country. Most of it is, however, little better than a desert fringed by "grassy plains, and fields of rice, cotton, sugar-cane, or millet." The present hao has under him some 200 minor chiefs, each of whom wields in his own


territory almost sovereign power; hat in spite of these feudal potentales the country i prosperons, and owing to the industry of its people yidls a revente of $t: 20,000$.

Soltifirn India.
In the region Hyderabal, or the Dominions of the Nizam, is the most import:mt kingdom. It is, indeed, the largest mative State in India, being larger than Grat Britain, though with only a third of the population of these istands. The present muler, under a wise minister, has kept up agreeable relations with the British (iovernment, though it

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* IIN:t Nati signifies "the great sacribce of sutter."
``` millet." his own

\section*{raportant} in Grait ant ruler, hough it
has long been it sore grievance with the Nizam that we still retain the fertile province of Berar. 'This tract of comntry was ceded to us in lbj3, in lien of arrears of interest on loans grauted to the Nizam, but on the maderstanding that its surplus revenues should be handel over to the Hyderabad treasury, after defraying the cost of the Nizam's contingent. The capital Mr. Andrew deseribes as a large and populous eity, tenanted


THE MAUSOLETM OF MAJAII BEKTAWCR AT ULWCR.
chisfly by people of the prevailing Musinlman faith, and adorned with mospues, a fine palace, and the imposing group of buildings used as the British residency. Sikunderabad is the site of the cantonment for the troops, and lutween this suburl) and the city "a ab of verdure" lies. The ruined eity of Coblomba, once famons for its diamond mines, lies a few miles west, and not far off is the fied of Assaye, where Sir Arthur Wellesley (afferwards Duke of Wellington) routed the Mahrattas in li03. Hyderabad being well watered ly the Godavari, the Kristma, the Warda, and their tributaries, is rieh in matural resoarces, and in the coal-fields lately opened out it has a greater means of future wealth than it ever possessed in its ancient diamond mines.

Mysore we have already sufficiently noticed (p. 231). Travancore is a State of \(1,300,000\) people, noted for its prosperity, schools, roads, reservoirs, and yearly surphus, after defraying the expenses of the Government-this model native kinglom thus being m exeeption not only to its neighbours, but also to the Imperial Government-it being unnecessary to say that a surplus in the Caleutta treasury is a something unknown to latterday India. Coehin* is a small State to the south of Malabar, whieh for eenturies maintained its independence against native and foreign aggression until it fell under Hyder Ali. In return for the aid the English gave him in expelling that conqueror, the Zamorin pays us tributo to the amount of \(£(11,000\) per annum, in addition to the cost of maintaining a lattalion of native infantry. The country is, however, prosperous. It consists of a part of the level flat hemmed in between the sea and the Ghauts, in addition. to the latter range of mountains which wall it off from inner India. Accordingly, it is every, where ent through by mountain streams, which in places form "backwaters" (p. 18:2). Great crops of rice are grown on the lowlands, and from the hills the torrents earry down to the coast immense quantities of timber, particularly teak, which, though vastly decreased in abundance, still exists in the north-eastern part of the State, and forms no inconsiderable source of wealth. Cotton, pepper, betel-nuts, ginger, and the usual Indian crops grow well, and coffee, whiel has of late been introduced, promises to add another item to the wealth of this flowrishing feudatory kingdom of Southern India.

\section*{Northerx India.}

Among the cis-Sutlej States, Puttiala, with more than a million and a half of people, is the most important. It occupies part of Sihrind, that great plain between the Sutlej and the Jumna, where so many battles for the mastery of India have been fought. The notia services of its Maharajah and people have raised it high into the favour of the English Goverument. Indeed, it is owing to the acuteness of its ruler that Puttiala bas been gradually incrensed. One of the sovereigns aided us in a war against Nepaul, another in the contest with the Sikhs; whilst the late occupant of the throne not only kept the road from Delhi to Lahore open during the Mutiny year, but lent money and trools frely to the Indian Government. For these offiees he was amply rewarded, and the favour has leen extended to the two Mahrajahs who have subsequently reigued in his stead. The Rajahs of Jhind and Nabha, though governing States not of such importance as Putiala, are equally loyal to us. Kalsia is a smaller State ruled by a Sirlur; Maler Kotla is thickly inhabited, and is governel by a Nawab of Pathan deseent, the family to which he belongs having originally come from Cabul to take service under the Mogul Emperors. The State of Faridkot was, up to the Sikh mar of 1815-6, in the possession of the family of Mokam Chand, Prime Minister at Lalore, who had seizet the sovereignty. But in that year the British Government, to mark their appreciation of the services of the Chief of Furilkot, restorel him to the confiscated throne with the rank of Rajal. Kapurthala, Mandi, Chamba, and Sakit, are among the minor

\footnotetext{
* Day: "Land of the lermauls" (1862).
}
tate of surphus, as being \(t\) being , latterintainel Ali. In rin pays ntaining sts of a to the ; every. p. 1s:). ts carry h vastly orms no I Indian another
half of ween the a fought. favour of Puttiala Nepaul, not only \(t\) money evarded, igued in 4 impor-
Sirdur; descent, servire 1815-6; ad seizel reciation ne with e minor
trans-Sutlej States. Khyrpore and Bhawulpore are Mohamedan kingdoms, which stretch along the left bank of the Sutlej and the Indus. The latter has an area of 6,000 square miles, and is a remuant of the family States of the Talpoor Ameers of Sindh, saved out of the general wreck of the fortunes of that family. Its ruler being detected in an attempt to gain more than his share by means of forged doeuments, was punished ly having part of his dominions forfeitel, and by being deposed from the rank of Reis to that of Meer. Bhawulpore is a long strip of comntry lying between the Indus and the desert which bounds Rajpootan: on the north-west. It comprises some 15,000 miles, but only about a third of it is cultivated. The country has seen some stormy times, and was likely to sink into amarchy until the British Government interfered, and put the young Nawab under the tutelage of a tutor. He has been earefully edueated, and last year commeneed w reign in his sovereign capaeity.

But of all the States of Northern Ii dia, Cashmere, or, as it is now usually written, Kashmir, is the most important. Of its products and eapalilities, some aceount has already been given (p. 196), but its prosperity bears but an indifferent ratio to its capabilities. With a larger area than Great Britain, it has a population not numbering over a million and a half, and is yearly threatened or devastated by famine. The present condition of the country is alont as bad as bad can be, and if matters do not mend it is impossible to allow the easy, well-meaning, but supine Maharajah to misgovern the kingdom alter the mamer whieh has been the rule for so many years past. The kingdom includes not only the far-famed "Vale of Cashmere" but the hill-districts of Jammu, Baltistan, and the Tibetan district of Ladik (pp. 104, 109). The people, though Moslems, are mostly of Hindoo race, with a mixture of Tartar and Tibetan elements, but the ruler is a Sikh prinee, whose father was allowed to purehase the sovereignty of the province from us for \(£ 750,000\) sterling. Previous to falling into our hands it had experienced the yoke of many successive masters, until, finally, the fall of Runjeet Singh brought it to us by right of conquest. The Maharajah owes fealty to Lagland, and pays yearly a tribute of slawls, shawl-goats, and one horse. Srinagar, the capital (p. 256), has been called the Yeniee of the East, from the fact of the Thelam river on which it is built permeating almost every part of it. It is a pieturesque pleasant town, and as Caslmere has of late years lecome the favourite holiday haunt of Euglish officers, and even of Luglish tcurists, has been deseribed and figured in a multitude of books.* The reports which reached the India Oflice during 1879-80 give a forbidding picture of the condition of matters in the lovely valley. Famine raged, yet it is alfirmed that food existed in abundance at Stinagar, and that had the supplies there been properly distributed no one need have suffered, instead of thousands dying of starvation. The Maharajah's officials, it is said, haid their hands on all the supplies the Gevernment obtained, and then retailed them to the famine-stricken people at exorlitant prices, or, as some accounts deelare, stored them up in granaries so that the Mohammedan majority might be eompelled to die of sheer want. In this manner the Dogra oflieials gratified their greed, or their religgous and politieal antipathies.

\footnotetext{
"Wikefich: "The Haply Vulley" (1879); Inco: "Handbovk to Kashmir" (1877); Cuaningham: "Latak" (1851) ; Drew: "The Northern Barrier of India" (1871); Whecler: "Imperial Assemblage at Delhi" \((1578)\), sc. \&o.
}

The Maharajah's ambition is to extend his kinglon: in the direction of Tibet, and by the conquest of Latalk, and the still more recent operations in the (iilgit Valley, some progress has been mate in that direction. Ranbir-Singh, the present sovereign, is, like Scindia, a general in the British army. But if the bill of indietment which has been presented against him be true, his generalship had always best remain of a purely homoray description. He resides for the greater part of the year at Jammu, allowing the Valley

the gophl mownin in the phaice of mah.
of Cashmere, as in former times, to be governed by a deputy, to whose misenduct is due the present condition of a country endowel with every element of prosperity, but possessing none of it.

\section*{Mediatised and Minon Culefs.}

Mr. Aitehison* classes the temures of the guaranted eliefs into two great classe: -those chiefs in the administration of whose affairs the interference of the feadal

\footnotetext{
* "Trentics, Engagements, and Sunnuds relating to India," quoted in Malleson : "Native States," p. 352.
}
by the progress cindia, : resented honomay e Valley
s due the ossessing
elasse: feudial p. 352.
superior is excluded by the express terms of the guarinte:, and those chicfs whose "sunnuls" contain no such stipulation. Among other rugulations umber which the latter come is that they are not to have the power of life and death. These meliatised chiefs must sulmit all trials for "heinous olfenees and all sentences of death, transportation, or imprisonment for lifo to the local oflicer of the British Goverument." 'To name all these meeliatised and quashed petty kingdoms would be todious, and not very protitable. In

diew of the city of habobi (from the biver mifamintm).

Central India and Malwa there are, for example, Ryjahs of Ruthm, Sillana, Alerajpore, Whabur, bukhtgurh, Nirwar, Sheopore, and Khaugurti ; Thlimes, that is, lowis or hereditary landowners, of Piploda, Jamasea, Naolana, Sheogurh, Dabri, Bichrod, Narwar, Salgurh, Piplia, Naogong, Dutana, Ajraoda, Dhulatia, Biloda, Mooltan, Kachi Baroda, Baisola, or Dotra, Khaltoun, Ragwgarh Burra, Sillani and Bukhtgurh Pithari, Bagli, Karodia, Tonk, Patharea, Singhana, Bai, Ragugarh, Kaytha, Khursi Jhalaria Phungat, Agra Burkhera, Dubla Dhir, Duria Kheri, Kumalpore, Dubla Ghosi, Khursia, Jhalera, and Kakurkheri; Chiefs of Punth Piploda, Sirsi, Chota Kusrawul, Dhungong, Mayne, Dhawra Kanjara, Bhoja Kheri, Basonda, Nursingarh, and Jauria Bhil; Ruos of Kalukhera, Burdia,
and Hirupore; Bhumias* of Nunkhera or Tirla, Koha Burkhera, or Sorepore, Mota Burkhura, Kali Bauri, Burudpoora, Jamnia, or Dabir, Rajgurh, aud (ihurti, or Bhysu Kheri; a 'lureis of' Jumti, whose revenne is about \(£ 190\) per annum ; "Jewen of Khilehipore, who for the right of ruling a population of \(3.0,000\) pays tribute to Scindia; and a Jugherla, of Sutatea, who leases twelve villages lrom the Rawnt of Rajgurh. Now, though these rulers are styled petty-and many of them are so-yct were it not for the fact that they are fendatories of other princes who have already been mamed, their territories are in some cases much larger than those of the semi-independent sovereigns. However, there are, in addition, Nawabs of Kurwai and Mahomedrarh, and a Chief of Basonda, who are direetly dependent on the British Government. Did space admit of this, a curious chapter might be written on the endlessly varied tenure by wheh, moder the Indian fendal system, these numerons lords hold their sovereignties. They enable India to be governed more cheaply than wonld otherwise be possible; but eheapness, it is needless to say, is purchased, aceording to our way of thinking, at the cost of justice to the people. Yet that is perhaps a sentimental grievance, for certainly the villages far in the central region of India seem happy enough, and probably get along more pleasantly with tho simple patriarehal system of ancient India then moder the more complex and eostly ríyime of the British Government. In Bandelkhmen there are twenty-four chiefs-whom we need not name-who hold their States as vassals and dependants of the Laglish Government. In Western India there are nine Satura Jaghirdars, whose possessions have been gnaranteed by the Laglish Government; two chiefs, descended from old Abyssiniam adventurers; and four other States under various administrations. In the Gujerat Peninsula, or Kattiwar-which contains \(\$ 1,000\) square miles-there were in former days 1:37 chiefs tributary to the Peishwa, and 111 to the Gaikwar. Nowadays, though the Gaikwar still retains his tribnte, it is collected by the British oflieials, and with the Peishwa's, which was ceded to lingland over sisty years ago, amounts to \(1,181,140\) rupees ; and the gross income of the chiefs may be set down at \(100,000,000\) rupees, collected from \(1,475,685\) people, though, as no regular census has been taken of these native States, all such estimates must be considered only provisional guesses. In the Pahlanpore Agency there are eleven States-four Mohammedan and seven Hindoo-containing a population of 321,645 people, and gross revenues of 640,000 rupees per anmum. In the Mahikanta States, with an area of 4,000 miles, and a population of 311,046 , there are, in addition to the Rajahs of Idar and Ahmadnagar, a number of semi-independent chiefs, mainly noted as freebooters, and whose engagements with ns consist for the most part in more or less fragile promises not to steal. In the Rewa Kanta States there are a number of little plundering proprietors, but there are only six rulers of any consequence; and, with the execption of three, all of them are tributaries of the Gaikwar.

\section*{Southern and Eastern India.}

In this part of the empire the "Tondiman Rajah" who rules Pudukotta is the truest ally of the English, but among a number of smaller subordinate States there are in

\footnotetext{
* The Bhunia is a feudal lord who is bound to protect travellers and tho villages he has charge of from robbers, and is liable to the payment of pocuniary indemnification to sufferers from crime within his limits.
}
this comntry the Jaghidar of Bangapuli and the Rajah of Camane, who, in addition to his territory now mentionel, holds the Sonthern Laceadive Islands (p. 176).

In Bastern India the Rajah of Hill 'Tippernh, though never subjected to the Vogul, receives his investiture from the Mognl's successors. The Knsaa IIill States are tiventyfive in number, but with the exeeption of five, which are semi-independent, they wre virtually under the closest subordination to the lagglish Govermment. In Chota Nagpore, Orissa, Manipore, and Koch Bihar thero aro a number of small potentates, who exercise more or less absolute sovereignty within their own bounds.

\section*{North-Westela: India.}

The Nawal of Rampore governs 390,232 people, but the Rajah of Benares is oniy a nominal chief of the holy city; his authority merely extends over a patrimonial estate of little value, while his revenue consists of the excess above the fixed tribute. The Garwhul Rajah rules over 200,000 people, whilo the Shapoora Rajah holds his territory under the British Government, and the Rana of Oodeypore as joint suzerains. The Cis-Sutlej chiefs of a minor character are eight in number, and in the Delhi territory there are three Mohammedan Nawabs. The Hill States comprise a number of small chiefs, Rajahs, Ramas, and Thakurs, who hold their power on various tenures, but with seareely an exception they are under bonds to render fendal service to Britain; the Rajah of Bhooji, for cxample, being homnd, "in easo of war, to join the British in person, with all his retainers, and to construct roads four yards broad in his territory."* Altogether, accordiug to the estimate mado by Colonel Malleson, the native chiefs command collectively \(5,25:\) guns, 9,390 trained artillerymen, 61,172 cavalry, and 211,063 foot-soldiers-a foree too large to be entrusted in the hands of prinees on whose fidelity we do not always rely, and indeed have no right to count.

\section*{Fonfign Settlements in India.}

In the necessarily condensed sketehes which we have given it will be seen that, though the greater part of India is ours, de jure or de facto, there are a number of mative princes who exercise more or less independent sovereignty, maintain mimie armies, and in their distant capitals keep up all the outward state of kings, thongh in reality only the semblance remains to them. But there are other powers who still hold slices of India, remnants of the greater territory they onee ruled when the English merehants were only legging in a humble way for a little bit of ground on which to build a factory.

Portugal was the first of the European nations to carry its commeree to India, but by the middle of the eighteenth century the Lusitanian possessions had dwindled down to very insignifieant proportions, and nowadays the Viceroy of Dom Louis reigns over a territory only forty miles 1 ng and twenty broad. Panjim, or New Goa, is the seat of government; and if a huge palece overlooking a fine harbour could make Portugal an

\footnotetext{
* Malleson: "Native States," 1. 381.
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\section*{IMAGE EVALUATION}

\section*{TEST TARGET (MT-3)}


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WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580


view in shinagar, kasimir.
Indian power, she ought still to hold herself as of some consequence in Hindostan. Old Goa, which was in the Middle Ages a splendid city, swarming with rich merchants and adventurers, and from which, as from a centre, Christianity spread through the


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to re
surrounding country, is nowalays little letter than a heap of ruius, whose splendid fragments are being gradually removed to build up the eity of New Goal, which lus now taken away most of its trade also. Goa, however, still attracts visitors, for here, towering above the deserted streets, is a noble cathedral, and a church which contiins the slrine of Francis Xavier, the "Apostle of the Last," and the ruined monasteries and inguisition which in former days aided in securing by terror what had been won by love. Portuguese inflnence will long remain in India. The church of Xavier still remains; and the traveller who passes throngh Southern India will often notiee large
In ian villages under the palm-trees, and the white chapels which were built ly this the nied missionary. But monasteries, churehes, palaces, and mused publie buildings arr almont the only remnants of Portugal's former greatness which remain. Dis has also fallen into the general deeay, though Daman, with its doeks and ship-yards, still keens up a -rmblane of life.

The Duteh for a time threatenel to be the greatest eommercial power in India; but ly the begiming of this century their day was over, and now they own not a rood if land in the empire, in which at one time Surat, Balasore, and Chinsurah rivallen Calentta, Bombay, and Madras.

The Danes, who were also among the pioneers of European trale in the East, retirel from the struggle in 151., when Serampore and Tranguebar passed into the hands of the Last India Company, in exchange for a groolly sum of moner, which to henmark nas then of more value than the burdensome honour of being a petty Eastern power.

The Freneh eame last to the last, but they proved the most formidable of wir rivals.* In 1740 the most powerful European in India was M. Dupleix, Governor of the French possessions. But twenty years later Gallic influence was on the wame; and mowadays Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Mahe, Karical, and Xamaon on the Orissa coast are the ouly remains of the empire which the genius of Lally and Dupleix had all bat established in the Last, and of these Pondicherry alone retains anything like its ancient importance. With the surromding country, it eovers some 107 square miles, in whieh live a population of 140,000 souls. Its well-built streets, shady boulevards, and peenliarly French-looking buildings give the town a pleasant appearance; int it has mo farlomr, and its trade is fast deelining. Chandernagore, seventeen miles from Call ntta, hais also seen its best days. "The Inonghly, which onee bore the largest vessels hither, now flows in shallow volume past its lonely quays and grass-grown strets." These settlemen.., like the others we have mentioned, are, wit' one exeeption-mamely, Mahe, on the Malabar coast-situated on the eoasts of the Bay of Bengal. Altogether the Frenel elam, aecording to the latest aceounts, to govern 285,000 people in India, while the Portuguese sway extends over between 400,000 and 500,000 people, of whom only a small portion are either Portuguese or Eurasians. The same is, of course, also true of the French, and, to a smaller extent, of the English settlements in india. The European goes to the East not to make it his home. He considers himself only a sojourner, to return whenee he pame after he has acquired suffieient wealth to enable him to pass

\footnotetext{
* Malleson: " History of the French in India" (1873).
}
the rest of his days far from the land in which he won it. Hence India is not-and, in all likelihood, never will be-a colony of (ireat Britain, but only a black empire dotted with the encmiments of her adrenturous chidene.

\section*{CHAPTLR NI.}

\section*{Inda: Its Commencial Conmtion.}

From the earliest perion the rumoured wealth of Ilindostan must have stimulated the tratiag ararice of the civilised world. Its matural riches are great, though the splendour of its palaces and princes raise false ileas regarding the actual wealth of its people. After the Laropean mations reached it, there was a rivalry among them as to who shonk profil most by the new mine opened \(\quad 1\). For a time Porlugal had the lead; but alter the establishment of the larst ladia Company in ltoo lingland obtained that supremacy which she ever after mantaned. "J'lie Compuny" was, at first, merely an ussuciation of merelants having, as was the fashion in thase days, the monopoly of trale with "the Indies;" but in time the necessity of defending its commereial estahlishments from native enemies and foreign rivals foreed it to muster armies, and, from boing on its defence, to at on the agroressive, nutil "Joln Company" became a greater conqueror than even "John bull," and in due time fomed itself with the grovernment of an extensive and ever-increasing empire on its hands. The commereial and the political functions of "the Comprony" did not at all times duvetail into whe another ; and, as history relates, the desire of gain often compelled the military ofliciads or the merchants to commit acts which no neeessity cond justify. If to the year l43at the Company had the exelusive right of not ouly governing, but trading with, the comntry. At an earlier date, a Buard of Control had been instituted, in the interest of grood grovermment to the people of India; but until the combtry was opened up to trade, "the Company" were still lords paranomit, as, indeed, commercially they continued to be until the comutry in las passed from their hands into that of the Imperial Govermment, for whom "the Company" were moderstool to hold it in trist. The Company, in the old days, when the "pagndit tree" was shaken so suceessfully ly the "factors" and "writers" who, at the cont if a diseased liver and a few years of discomfort, returned with gohl mohurs and rupees the amomit of which gossip did not require to exagererate, was managel aceording to two distinct systems-"by covenanted servants, who received renpular pas, and invested the money entrusted to them withont making any private protit; and by unsalarich agents, who contracted to supply goods at a certain rate, and might make what they conld by the bargain." The first elass bore the titles of residents, seniol' merehante, junior merchants, fietors, and sub-fietors. Their posts were the most luerative ones in the service, and attracted the best men. The mere task of govening the people of lndia was made over to "the boys of the service," who had on oceanion to drop the pen and seize the swurd.* But in 185 s even the semblanee of the com-

\footnotetext{
* Ifunter: " Amals of fimal lengal," p. 319. To this charming work the reader is referred for a most complete account of old East Indian life.
}
mereial lifu of the ohd Company passed away, and loulia is mow onen tu any one who (homsers to serk his fortume there. Of comse, the wflicials are still the elief people in the combtry. The old feeling has not altogether dis:appeared, and the "eompetition wallib" is apt to look on the tea-phanter in the hills as an "interloper," while the ancient oflicials, traned at the old East India Company's Colluge at Itaileybury, are wot even yet reconciled to the influx of youths with whom the mot altogether infallible test of eompetitive examination has oflicered the eivil service of the comitry.

\section*{Exponts axi Inports.}

India has commereial eapabilities perfectly umivalled. It has many elimates, and, as we have seen, is eapable of growing the products of almost any country, its people are essentially agriculturists-two-thinds of them being engaged in cultivating the soi-and whenever any political eommotion in the rest of the word has stopped the supply of some particular product, India has been found quite capable of meeting the fresh demand. During the Russian war the manfacturers of Darope and America turned to it for the hemp which no longer reached them from the baltie, and when the Ameriean war cansed a cotton famine in barope, the Iudian eultivator prew wealthy. Since Europen anterprise has developed the entivation of partientar proulucts, the "course of trade" has been somewhat altered. For instance, as Mr. Amblrews points out, the extended growth of cotton in Western India, and of coffee m the Malabar Coast Districts, has necessitated the importation of grain and sugar from Bengal to supply the wants of the people of those districts. The home trade of India is estimated at abont \(t\) an, 000,000 per ammm, and employs coasting vessels to the momber of about 15,000. It also inchades the carrying of the products of one district to another, and the bartering of their commodities. Its forcign tade is chielly with Great Britain amd China. In 1s78-which year may be taken as a fairly average one-the imports of merchandise amounted to \(£ 41,461,155\), and the exports to \(565,222,328\), and the trate is gradnally inereasing. It may be odded that the importation of gold and silver shows that in forty years about \(\{300,000,000\) of these metals in coin and bulliou have becos absorbed by the country over what has been exported, so that its riches must in some way be augmenting. This is, however, a fluctuating item in the commereal estimate of India, and the depreciation of silver during recent years has been a still more disturbing factor in the trade intereourse between Asia and Europe. Rav cotton was exported during the height of the Ameriean civil war to the amount of \(\{37,500,000\) sterling, thongh by 1869 the export had fallen to the value of nearly \(\mathcal{E} 18,500,000\) millions sterling. Of late it has still more dropped off, but it is yet sent abroad to the value of over E:3,500,000. From time immemorial, coton-weaving has been one of the staples of India. The heantiful gossamer moslins of Dacea, and the calicoes of Southern India, were famous all over the civilised world when the products of the looms of Furope were but mode imitations of them. In the early days of Indian trade, it was these minufactures, and not the raw material, which was sent across the seas. In every village the weaver pursued his labours, and under the walls of the Residencies weaving
villages sprang up all over Bengal. Indin then not only supplied its own home wants, hut had to spare for its neighbours. But the invention of steam-machinery and the cheapening of freights revolutionised the commerce of ladia, aud nowadays England


INIIAS COTTON OJERATIVES.
for the most part imports the cotton and sends it baek to India in the woven state. During the height of the cotton famine the starving ryots became prosperous gentlemen, for the first time in their lives independent of usurers, and able to deck out their wives and danghters in costly ornaments of gold and silver. Another revolution is,
however, taking place. India, we have seen, is again begiming to mamufacture cotton goonds ly stem machinery. "It is fomm," writes Mr. Audrews, "that the supple tingers, quiek intelligence, mul putient habits of the native of India make them the best of mill hands, and bearing in mind the cheapuess of their labour as compared with that of bureporas, and the fact that the raw material is at hand, and that there is a ready sale for the groods when made, it is evident this comparatively new industry, or more properly speaking old industry revived in a new form, must rapidly grow; and it is well we should be prepared for its competing with our home manufactures, not, moly in the Indian markets, but elsewhere." The misery of India is greatly due to its being a country of small farmers, who cultivate little more than can supply their wants of the year, and who are therefore always in imminent danger of famine when a bad season wertakes them. They have not and cannot have any reserve. The establishment of a large mannfacturing population will to a great extent render the country independent of drought, and the failure of the earth in consequence to yield its increase. Next to cotton, come jute, rice, flax, and linseed, tea, mutanned hides, grain, coffee, opium, timber, indigo, saltpetre, tobaeco, seeds, shellae, gums, oils, wool, cocoa-but and coconmut tibre, and shawls as articles of export ; and now that the comntry is interseeted by over 9,000 miles of railway, under a proper system, there seems mothing to prevent India prospering far heyond its wont, and finally extricating itself from that finaneial Slough of Despond into which it rapidly sunk ever sinee the cheap paterual government of the East India Company was superseded by the juster but more costly one of the Crown.

\section*{Revence, etc.}

The Indian budget is always a sore subject with financiers, and sinee it has proved possille for the estimates to be so framed that a mistake of four millions sterling is capable
of loning matr in them, publie ronlidene has not increned in the manner in which the pmblie: aromuts of llindustan are kept. However, to take the ligures as we limd them,

 mast he incerasel hy that amonnt. Of the different parts of Iudia, Bengal, the regions divectly moder the Governor-Gomemal, and Bombay pay ly liar the greatest part, mad of the thre main sonres of income-the land-tax, opinm, and salt-line lirst yields over t?0,000,000, the second morn than \(60 m, 000\) in all, and the thirl, which has been recently raiseal, about \(67,0(10),(10) 4\). Bafore the Matiny the land-tas yielded fully one-huld of "the Company's" reveme, and it still supplies two-liths of the funds to deftay the everinereasing expenses of the Government, and the numerous lorms in which it is exacted constitute one of the most interesting and complieated departments of the Indian pulilicist's studies.*

The joppy enltivation ( p . \(2(i)\) ) is a Government monopoly. In Bengal it can only be grown in order to sell the jnice which exudes from its incisel pools, to the Government otlicials, hy whom it is sent to the factories at Patua and Gharpore, where it is made up into the commercial form, and dresatchel to Culcutta to be sold to the merchants by anction. In Malras the poppy is not enltivated, and in Bombay the revenue is derived from that male from the plant grown in the mative States of Malwa and Guzerat.

The Indian army is the heaviest item in the Indian expenditure. In lsis there were upwarls of \(0.5,000\) limropen solliers in the combtry, in addition to 190,000 native sepoys, the whole maintainal at a cost not moch under \(617,0001,000\). There is now no speecial Indian mavy, the war-ships on the coast heing those of the Royal Navy. The Indian mational doht amomes to wer tili,0mo,000, if all the outstanding obligations of the Government are to be included, and as we write a fresh lom-now becoming a financial "regolar"-is amonuere. The roin circulating in the comntry is ehiefly silver.
 medimen is comparatively small, not so much as 616,000 having been coined in 1575 , though there are also over \(\mathrm{L} 12,000,0000\) of paper notes in cirenlation.

Such is a brief sketch of the great empire which was won for us by the valour, the diphomacy, and-justice camot deny-oceasionally loy the knavery of our ancestors. Its rule is one of the heaviest responsibilities which have fillen to the lot of the Englishmen of this age. It is mo light task to govern it to-day: the duty will prove no easier as time passes away, and unless the futme beeomes pleasanter than it seems at present likely to le, only an optimist an look forward to the twentieth century with a light heart. These are, however, speenkions ontside the limits of a work such as this. We deal with farts alone, and even did space admit of a disenssion of the prospects of India, its government and polity, it would be manifestly improper to

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* Carnegy: "Notes on the Land Trmures and Revene Assessments of T"pper India" (187t); Grant-Dufi: "Notes of an Indian Journey" (1890); Kaye: "The Alministration of the Fast India Company" (18is); Kuight: "The Inulan limpire nad our Financial lelations therewith" (1866): Prichard: " lhitish liule in India from 1859-186s (1869): Rontlodge: "Jnglish Rulo and Natior Opinion in India" (1875); Chunder Dutt: "India, l'ast and l'resent" (1880); and the current official publications.
} sroment s made auts by derived
ocelpy our pages will the considerntion of gnestions sa debatahle and so debated, and around which purties and partisans are ever surging in the weary war of words. A more interesting topic would be the sestial life-not of the matives of ladia, lior this we hase brielly considered elsewhere-but of the binepean Colonien, or rather emempments, in that comntry. I'his would, however, ocenpy more space than we can hestow,* while the railways, telegraphs, canals, hanks, and other institutions of the eomutry must rest with the brief notice they have alrealy casually recerved in our rapid passage over the limpire We now visit the border lands of India, and from them travel across Asia throgh the countrics which have not been alrenly noticed on our jomrney eastward.

\section*{Chapmer Xif.}

\section*{1nda: Its Neagibocres.}

Os the outskirts of India lie a mumber of States which have not yet fallen actually monder the rontrol of Calenta, thongh, as we shall see, year by year the power of their rulers is deeaying, and in time, even without any desire on our part, the sub-llimalayan and neighbouring States will either beome part and paree of the great Eapire in their immediate vicinity, or slide into a condition very similar to that of Cashmere and Myderabad. Meantime, however, they are independent, and it is evident that sor long as they continue unaggressive it is for our interest that they shond continue "soveruigh pewers." A nest of homets may be unpleasime even when the hum of the inseds is only heard at a distance, and withont it presiging any immediate annogance; a problent man would, however, prefer nut to transfer the edony into his back garden.

\section*{Nepacl.}

For 500 miles uloug the base of the Ilimalayas overlooking Rohilemad, Oudh, and Northern Bengal, lies the kingdom of Nepanl, or Nepal, peopled mainly hy a race of Tibetan urigin, though mixed with them are Chinese, Hindow, and other elements. 'Ihe seonery of the country is fine-fertile valleys with snowy momntains, "an Indian Switaromad without its lakes." In the valleys most of the inhabitants dwell, and by the hank, of the Gozra, Gundak, and Kusi, which are tributartes of the Ganges, are faidy cultivated tracts of lamd. Katamandor, the capital, is situated on the hamks uf at small stream; its population has been estimated to mumber jo,000, but as the

\footnotetext{
* Muray's "Dhadbooks" of Bombay and Madras; "Life in the Mofassil," Jy an ex-lhengal Civilim; "slecpy Sketches from Hombay"; "Raral Life in Reugal": Sterndate: "Camp life on the Sipham lange"; Malleson: "Recreations of an Indian Oflicial"; Inglis ("Mari"): "Sport and Work on the Nrpaul Frontia";
 Tungue" (Murkwood's Muyazim, May, 187i); Papers by Dr. Hunter in Fruscr's Mny«ime, December, 18:9, de, \&c., in addition to the profuse crop of Anglo-Indian novels for local coloming.
}
only Englishman allowed to moter the emontry is the British Resident at the Rajah's Contrt the penpulation of the empital and conntry man only be puessed at. 'The Nopaulese lave a prejudice agninst ns, mud not moreasombly, Early in this century an linglish resident lived in Katmandon, but the eneronchment of the momataineers un British territory resulted in a war which compelled the (ihworka Govermment to ede part of their territory nom in other ways acknowhedge the English their supurins. For many yars Sir June Baladur, who was nominally Irime Minister, in reality mond the comatry. This tieree amenture had the grood semse to know that tho Britioh were the most pewerfal race in India, and whatever might hase heen his private opision he tow goon arre to act on his pulibi

-16 slea hatthith. one. Hence, when the Matiny broke out he sidnd with us, and reve after was mwarded with hroal ribhns and wher dignities, indudiug the propuretorship of wertain forest lands on the borders of Ondh. IIe is said to have been sureceeled hy his som ; hat if the report that the Rapath has of late shown an indiation to recognise the bimprom (1) Chimal as his suzerain be true.* the father's wistem has mot descemed with his olliee to his son. Neprall is not maturally a rich comntry, thongh nearly as lame an England, mond the isolated character of its valleys hamade the tribus living in them almost independent of wach other. It has, however, the most variol of dimates, and is capaible of protucing the most varied it "rops. 'Timber, riee, singer, and honey, along with hides, copper, iron, amd hrass ntensils, form the chief materiats of trade; hat Nepanl is as yet a practically mopened comntry, our information in regard to it heing fiagmentary and often very impreflect.t

\section*{Sukilm ind Butan.}

Sikhim is a little State which divides Nupal from Bhutam. Its chicf has elose rehations with the English Govermment, sine his territory in the Tista Valley is muler a Briti-h gunamtee, and his district of Darjeeling is British-governed in return for an ammity of a few hondreel pomels. \(\ddagger\) Bhatan, cast of Sikhim, and north of the Valley it Issam, is a little-known region, its people, like those of the two States already mamel, being Buddhists, ruled by a Deb Rajah, or temporal sovereign, and a Dharm Rajah, or spiritual ruler, and the country is overrun by idle priests, who plunder the wretehed enltivators of the little which they raise. The physical features of the region are,

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* In the middle of hast century the invasion of Tibet by the Ghoorkas brought on them the vengeance of China, and, it is said, forcel the Hajah to recognise the supremany of Pokin, a recognition still kept up by an Limbassy sent every live years to the Emperor's Court.
\(\dagger\) Hodyson: "Trate of Nepani" (Recorls of Bengal, No. XXVif.), \&c.
\(\ddagger\) Honker: "Hlimalayan Journals" (1853).
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Rujah'* The contury (eers on to cerde ipervins. reality mint the eell his ( publi, sidul riblun © celtailu to hase le laijains limper" wividon Cpam! is harg' : leys har ndent of oif cliwiried it th hide", material hation in
relations Briti-h :mmint! Falley us y namel, Rajah, or wretehed rion are,
ngeance of t up by an
however, magnifieent. Its rigged mountains in lofty and picturesque prandeur are unequalled. The traveller, in ulmost any purt of the country, is ever lineed with ammense precipices, hills elothed to their very summits with trees, dark deep glets,

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and the high tops of momntains lost in the cloms. Such a country, as might lie expected, is traversed by many rivers and cataracts, which, fureing their way throngh thr passes in the monntains, eventually form themselves: int, the Brahmapontra. Captain Turner mentions one torrent which falls over so great a height that it is nearly 194
dissipated in mid-air, and looks like a ject of steam from boiling water. Materially, the Bluntias are also a fine prople, though dirty in their habits and persons. Their fond consists of meat, chicfly pork, rice, turnips, barley meal, and tea, with choug distilled from barley and mullet, and marria, a beer made from fermented mullet. But though the agriculturists are iudustrious, the misettled state of their country and the insecurity of property paralyse their efforts. In 1561 the population was reckoned at only 20,000 , or about one to each square mile. Allowing, however, that this estimate is under the truth, as we believe it is, it is evident that the country is seareely peopled, and it is equally certain that the inhabitants are poor and oppressed. What the British Envoy wrote in 1801 applies with equal truth in the present day: "Nothing," le deetared, "that a Bhutia possesses is his own; he is at all times liable to luse it if it attracts the cupidity of any one more pewerful than himself. 'The lower elasses, whether villigers or public servants, are lithe better than the slaves of higher ollicials. In regard to them no rights of property are reeognised, and they have at once to surrender anything that is demanded of them. There never was, I faney, a country in which the doetrine of 'might is right' formel more completely the whole and sole law and custom of the land than it does in Blatian. No official receives a silary; he has certain distriets made over to him, and he may get what he can out of them; a certain portion of his gains he is compelled to send to the Darbar, and the more he extorts and the more he sends to his superior the longer his temure of offiee is likely to be." Captain Pemberton declures that in all his experience of the Indian fromtier he never met with a race so degrated as the Bhutias, the degradation being the result, he considers, of a system which eliminates from the man all that is human, and leaves behind only what ho shares in. common with the beast. The land is in many places fertile and capable of yielding varied crops. But as the taxes increase in proportion to the amount of soil cultivated, tho Bhatia endeavours not to increase the extent of his terrace farm in the hill-side, but to make it yield twice as muelh as the officials estimate it capable of yielding, and of course of being taxed for. The furests supply, among ot her trues, beech, ash, yew, birch, maple, and cypress, white at different elevations on the mountains are found tirs, pines, oaks, and riododendrons. The cimamon tree also grows wild, but it is not applied to any economic purpose. Tigers, leoparts, with deer, elephants in great numbers, rhinoceroses, bears, pheasants, jungle fowls, and other gatne animals are found, and Bhutan has the distinction of nurturing a kind of horse preuliar to it. This is the Tangun, soealled from being a native of Tangastan, the Indian name for the collection of mountain States which we have been deseriling. The manufactures of the country are poor, and nearly all intended for home consumption, little trade being carried on between Bhutan and neighbouring countries. The climate is very varied aud trying. Owing to the irregular surface of the commtry different parts experience widely dissimilar temperatures at the sume moment. Punakha is the winter residence of the Rajahs, and though at that season the inhabitants are often afraid of exposing themselves to the scorching suns, the people of Ghasa are being ehilled by the rigour of perpetual frosts. Torrents of rain visit some parts, and terrible storms often devastate the country far and near. Tasisudon is the capital, and here, though the rains are frequent, they are

Aaterinlly, Their forel , distilled rough the ecurity of 20,000 , or the trulh, is equally e in 1861 a possessers - one mure are little operty are m. There rmed more Blatan. l be may ad to send perior the hat in all led as the climinates in. common ing varied ivaterl, the Il-side, but ag, and of yew, birch, lirs, pines, applied to pers, hinond Bhutan Y'uny"u, somountain are pon', n between
Owing to ar temperathough at hing sults, Torrents
far and they are
momerate in comparison with those of other parts of the country, and at worst are considered mild by those familiar with the tropical delnges endured by the inhabitants of Lower Bengal. With the Bhatias we have comparatively little diplomatie intercourse. In early times they had to be frequently ehastised for their mids into our territory, hut up to the date of the eonquest of Assam they gave little tronble. In 186:3, however, they made inroads into the Dewars, or tracts of low land lying at the foot of the monntain passes, plundering, murdering, and carrying into capiivity many British sulijeets. Remonstrance proving of no avail, the envoy sent being even treated with grons insults, and compelled ly threats of death to sign a treaty giving over much disputed territory, and making other concessions to Bhutan, a war ensued, which ended in the Bhatias surrendering mach territory and liberating the kidnapped British subjeets. since that date the two Rajahs have behaved reasonably well, and as their revenue consisted for the most part in the taxes levied on the annexed territory, they receive an annmal subsidy from the Indian Government, of which, to all intents and purposes, they are suzerains.

To the east of Bhutan, and in the highlands round the north-east frontier of Assam, are a number of wild, lawless tribes of whom we know very little, except that they have more than once proved troublesome to us. They are descendants of the Tartar conquerors of that part of India, and were never subjugated by the Great Mogul. Though many of them are in religion either Hindoos or Mohammedans, yet the majority are still Pagans, inhabiting rude huts erected on scaffelds, in the most inaccessible depths of the jungle which covers their native hills. These Abors, Dullas, Mishmis, Singphos, Kamptis, and so forth (p. 220) are prone to raid across the border, but by the comlined aid of a little money and a great deal of firmness they are kept in tolerable suljection, though every now and again, as the Indian newspapers inform the outside world, our troops have to teach them the sharp lesson which has been often learned ly the other races of Hindostan.

\section*{Bafoochistan.}

The Baloochees and Afghans inhalit that prition of the \(g\).u Persian Plateau whel mans in the shape of mountains, with bare sterile deserts, and narrow valleys and gorges, west and south from the Ilindoo Koosh Range. The country is poor and rugged, "yielding," as the reople declare themselves, "nothing lout men and stones." The latter are for the most part devoid of metals or other materials of value, while the former, as unhappily we know to our cost, are brave, in spite of their ignorance, suspicion, and fanatical batred of Europeans, who in their eyes are endowed with the double objectionability of being at once foreiguers and Christians. This region has, however, a political importance entirely out of proportion to its fertility and economie resourees. It is, with the exception of the railway to Candahar, and the paths constructed for the passage of our invading armies in Afghanistan, practically without roads worthy of the name, but its position between the two great Asiatie powers
-Great Britain and Russia-both of whom are year by year approaching closer to eack other, renders it a territory not likely to be less eagerly contested for as years roll past. The Bolan Pass to Quetta in Baloochistan-now practically British ground, the Khan of Khelat, who nominally governs the country, having eeded to the English the right of garrisoning that pass-and the Khyber, which is the highway to Cabul, and is likely to remain British territory, have been with justice styled the north-western gates of India.

Baloochistan is a territory larger than Great Britain, aud is for the most part a sandy plateau, unwatered by regular rivers, though traversed by torrents during the rainy season, enclosed between ranges of mountains, which on one side mark the boundary of Sindh, and on the other descend in pastoral terraces to the low-lying district of Mekran, by the shores of the Arabian Sea. Thus while the upper regions of Baloochistan


VIEW OF THE HULAN fast.
are cold and uniuhabitable in the winter and hot in the summer, Mekran is for some months in the year one of the most farnace-like parts of the whole world. The CutchGandava, in the north-east, is, however, a fertile and pleasant district; but though the coist extends for 600 miles, there is no good harbour in its whole extent, the roadsteads of Sonmeanee Bay, Homara, and Gwadur being about the best holding grounds along the shores of the Arabian Sea. The country cannot, however, be characterised as an extremely poor one. Gold, silver, lead, antimony, iron, tin, and various other metals and mineral substances are found in more or less abundance, and although most of the land is stony, the Province of Cutch-Gandava, if properly cultivated, is alone capable of rearing all the grains required by the population. But there are few parts of Baloochistan which do not yield some crops. Of the numerous Indian cereals there is raised a sufficiency, vegetables are abundant, and the gardens of Khelat, the capital, produce a profusion of temperate and sub-t:opieal fruits, and the Balooehistan indigo is reported to be superior to that of Bengal. Cotton and madder are grown, and in the hot region of Mekrau
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VIEW OF KHELAT.
the date culture is an important industry. Khelat is a town of about 3,700 houses, built on the edge of a plain some 5,540 feet above the sea. The houses are mostly built of sun-dried briek, or of wood plastered over with mud. The walls and bastions are also of mud, and though sufficient to defend it against an uprising of the native tribes, would be valueless against artillery planted on the hills which command it on all sides. The streets are broader than is usual, the bazaar is large and well supplied, and though the town is not remarkable for greater sanitary appliances than most other Eastern cities, it has the redeeming quality of being well supplied with excellent water, derived from a spring which, arising in a hill, meanders through the centre of the town. Its water has this peculiarity-that before sunrise it is rather tepid, but immediately on the lieat of the day setting in, the waters at their issue from the smaller springs become exceedingly
coll, and so remain until next marning. The population of Bulooehistan is made ny mainly of the Baloochees and the Brahuis. The latter are, however, the dominant race, and from them the rulers are always selected. Indeed, such is the marked distinction between them that when the Khan assembles the tribesmen for war the Brahuis demand of their right rations of wheaten bread, the Baloochees baving meantime to be content with flour made from the coarse grain known as jowar ( \(p\). 198). The number of the people it is, however, difficult to ascertain. The area of the country, according to the boundaries fixed by the commission under Sir. F. Goldsmid, is about 106,500 square miles, while the tribesmen may be estimated at 400,000 , this number ineluding the Persian colony called Dehwars, and the Hindoos long settled on the Brahui mountains. The population is, however, divided up into a multiplicity of tribes, who, like those of Afghanistan, do not readily brook a master. Indeed, the fluctuation of power is such that, thongh the Khan of Khelat is nominally the ruler of the country, he is often not mueh more influential beyond the range of his matehlocks than is Abdur Rahman, Ameer of

Cabul, over " the tribes" supposed to be his liegemen. The Sirdars, or tribal chiefs, though owing military service to the Khan, and recognising him ans a final court of appeal, in reality exereise supreme control within their own districts, and the Khan has long ago allowed his right of vetoing the election of a tribal head to fall into abeyance, 'the revenue of the Khan, derived mainly from his prolits as proprictor of lands and towns, from taxes paid by the foreign cultivators settled in the country, from customs dues, and from irregular extortions, is belicved not to exceed \(\{30,000\) per annum. Henee, when he goes to war he is compelled, like his brother sovereign in Afghanistan, to ask assistance of the tribes, and to submit with what grace he is capable of to the refusal which his refuest not unfroquently meets. 'These irregular levies are, however, brave and ferocions. They fight chielly on foot, horses not being convenient in so mountainous a country, and camels are used solely by the western tribes in their predatory excursions. Mr. Andrews has, perhaps, very happily deseribed the relations of the Khan of Khelat to his subordinate chiefs, when he describes him as only one of many petty tribal headmen, who wields among his neightbours a kind of lordship as unstable as that which the carlier Kings of France exereistel over the Dukes of Burgundy and other powerful vassals of their day.

\section*{Argilanistan.}

This other lingdom of the great sen of monntaius between India and the plains of Central \(\Lambda\) sia has for us ever had an even greater interest than Baloochistan. With its rolers the dinglish have several times been compelled to go to war, and at this moment of writing our last campaign with Shir Ali, his son Yakoob Kham, and the masterless men who have continued the struggle since the death of the one and the deposition of the other, is only approaching temporary settlement to the election of Abdur Rahaun, Shir Ali's nephew, to the vacant " musumd." It is even a more rugged conntry than Baloochistan, and in size is nearly as large as the Punjab, Oudh, and the North-western Provinces together. The Suleiman Mountains separate it from India proper, and across its northern parts project spurs of the Hindoo Koosh. Afghanistan is nowadiys peopled by a peculiar people, whose features are deeidedly Hebrew, though whether they are actually Semitic is likely ever to remain an open question. They themselves assert their Jewish origin; but their traditions prove nothing, and are moreover of very reent date. It is, however, certain that mingled with the original stock are many Aryan elements-that is, people of the same origin as the Hindoos and most European natiousin addition to al large admisture of Persians and other races living in their immediate vicinity.* Be the Af ohans' origin what it may, the most casual reader of the eurrent history of the last two years need not require to be told that they are among the fiereest and most intractahle people with whom we have evel come into collision. Pone and stony as Afyhanistan is, from the earliest times it has heen the prey of suceessive conquerors. The soldiers of Alexander the Great colonised Bulkh, on the confines of the Amu layyia or Oxus, and to this day traees of this ancient Greek settlement of Bactria are ever and anon dug up. From Persia and Turkestan later conquerors, from the days

\footnotetext{
* Bellew: "The Races of Afghanistin" (188C).
}
of Mahmoud of Ghuzni and Mahomed Ghori, have in later times seized Afghanistan as their prize, and from its mountain fustuesses have swept down on the rieh plains of India, while the events of the last lulf-century are too well known to be marrated afresh.

The area of the country is greater than that of Framee, but four-lifths of its surface are covered with a confused mass of mountains and valleys, which may be deseribed as in general diverging from tho central knot of the Pamir to the more level deserts of the Persian platean. The great range of the Hindoo Koosh extends along its northern border, and beyond the Haji-Gak Pass is continued westward under the name of the Kohi-i-Balo, Safed-Koh, and other ranges, until they form the northern edge of the Persian phateau, and meet the Elburz Range sonth of the Caspian. On the side nearest to India, the Suleiman Range bars the way Last, and between the two great boundary mountain barriers lie many well-wntered and fertile valleys, as well as "high, cold, treeless, pastoral table-lands, which merge to the south-west into the bare deserts of Baloochistan and Lastern Persia." The country, as a whole, is well waterel, though the rivers which intersect it do not in every case add much to the fertility of the arid country through which they flow but do not irrigate. They are formed, not by rainfall, but by the melting of the mountain snows, and hence are inconstant, and partially valueless to the agriculturist. However, in many cases these waters are drawn off into canals for irrigating purposes. Hence the Dehas is spent in reviving the soil of Balkh, the Nari or Sangalak in irrigating the vicinity of Andkhai, and the fine stream of the Murghab is exhausted in making Merv the oasis of Eastern Central Asia. The comntry varies much in different parts. Cabul (p. 272), for example, presents a splendid panorama of lofty, pine-clad, snow-eapped mountains, enclosing luxuriant valleys and glens, watered in every direction by numberless mountain streams, and profusely rich in vegetable productions, including a variety of fruits and cereals.* Again, in other parts of the country there are low ranges of rocky hills skirting sand or gravelly plateaux, either in themselves arid wastes or which end in genuine deserts. In such a region cultivation is mainly confined to the vieinity of the natural or artificial watercomses, and pastoral operations, for which the country is more suited, are only available during the winter and spring seasons, and then for the most part only on the hills. These elevations are usually either treeless, or only covered with a sparse growth of stunted shruls or diminutive firs, but they furnish food for the flocks of various nomad tribes, who in their elevated recesses find pasture for their flocks, and a refuge from the terrible heat of the \(\boldsymbol{1}^{\text {rains, }}\) or shot-in valleys, the lemperature of which during the summer months is akin to that of a furnace. The elimate is equally varied-so varied, indeed, as to deserve the description which the Emperor Baber gave of it nearly 400 years ago, when he characterised Afghanistan as a country in which, at one day's journey from Cabul, you may find a place where the snow never fulls, and at two hours' journey a place where the snow almost never melts. For instance, at Cabul and Ghuzni the winter is usually very severe, though the summer heats are tempered by cool breezes from the adjacent snow-elad monntains. At Candahar and the sonth-western portionsof the country the winter is comparatively mild. Snow falls but rarely, and oven then

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"Bellew : "Journal of a Mission to Afghanistan," p. 6.
}
it lies but for a short time. In Cabul and Ghuzni the temperature is also mitigated by the influence of the south-east monsoon, which, after blowing over Hindostan, exhausts itself in this portion of Afghanistan in clouds and occasional showers. In the eastern part of the country, in the direction of the region known as Khorassan, the

view of the city of cabul.
hot winds, laden with dense clouds of dust, render life almost insupportable. The high temperature is farther increased by radiation from the "bare rocks and a dry sandy soil, whilst the country unreached by the influence of the monsoon is not favoured with any regular supplies of rain to cool the air or to moisten the parched gronnd." We have spoken of the rivers of Afghanistan. These are not many, and of small ca ore. The great evaporation in such a dry climate, as well as the continual tapping to which they are subjected also, decrease their volume to suih an extent that, with the exception
of the Helmand, almost all of them become exhausted long before they have mun their course. A large quantity of their water is also absorbed by the porous soil over which the streams flow. Even the Lake of Sistan, which receives the waters of six rivers, presents during the summer months almost a dry surface over a considerable portion of its extent.* But after the heavy rains on the hills which the streams feeding it drain, Dr. Bellew remarks that they become flushed for a time, and sometimes overflow their banks as does the Sistan Lake. But owing to the rapid absorption by the soil, and the evaporation caused by the arid atmosphere of this region, the inconvenience produced by these inumdations is but temporary, and of no great importance. This is true of Western Afghanistan. But in Cabul the rivers are more numerous and of greater value than in the drier parts of the country. In the winter the streets of the city of Cabul are usually blockaded with snow for three months in the year, and then all business comes to an end. At Jelalabad, lower down in the same valley, there is less snow, but in the summer the heat is terrible, and greatly detracts from the healthiness of the climate, due to the prevalence of the dry, bracing winds in the uplands. Afghanistan has always been more or less of a closed country-an oyster which at intervals has been opened with the sword. Nomad merchants, like the Lohani traders, have from time immemorial wandered through it, but the jealousy of the authorities has for many years prevented almost any one save soldiers at the heads of armies or diplomatists under special permits-and these, as we all know, not invariably-from entering the country. Yet curiosity or other causes have led men to risk their lives in the attempt to penetrate the sterile valleys of Cabul. Arminius Vambéry got as far as Herat, not, however, without being suspected, and then wisely turned back. Political spies-both Russian and English-have more than once been in it, unknown to the authorities. But the strangest of all wanderers who ever reached Cabul in modern times was Wilhelm Friedrich Yapûrt, a German, who appeared in Candahar in 1857, when Major Lumsden's mission was there. He was a native of Berlin, but had roamed for twenty years through half of Asia and Turkey as quack doctor, herbalist, :nd shoemaker, until he had reached Herat. Here he was cruelly treated, and several times led out to have his throat cut as an infidel, and only escaped on producing positive proof that, outwardly at least, he had conformed to Mohammedanism. He travelled from Herat to Candahar on fnot, taking six months to accomplish the journey, and suffering hardships almost too terrible to think of. He was then on his way to Bombay, but finally changed his mind and determined to remain in Candahar. This, however, he was not destined to do, for when news of him reached Dost Mabomed, who was then Ameer, he was ordered to go to Cabul for inspection. What became of him the Englishmen could never learn, but when the Sipahis of their guard heard of his destination they merely stroked their beards and gravely remarked, "May Allah have mercy upon him!" He was suspected of being an English spy, for the Afghans know nothing of the Germans. To them Feringhistan is simply the land of the Feringhees-" a white-faced, pig-eating race of infidels,

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* Rawlinson: Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, Vol. XLIII. (:873), p. 272; Markham : Broceedings of the Royal Geographical Society (1880), p. 198.
}
very fond of eating and fighting and stealing ench other's lands." But long before poor Wilhelm Yupûrt wandered to his death a Briton had found his way to Cabul. When the first English army wintered in that city, they were often pazaled by an inseription on a tombstone in the Mohanmedan cemetery, which recordeal that-" Here Jyeth the body of John Hicks, son of Thomas and Edith llicks, who departed this lif: the eleventh of October, 1666." Who was Jolun Hieks? who carverl his tumbstone? and what did he in Cabnal in the dnys when Aurungrebe was Great Mognl, and the second Charles King of lingland?

The invasions of 1835, 184:, 187s, and 1879 have, however, greatly extended our knowledge of the country, albeit this is still imperfeet, while the once scanty literature of Afghanistan has, owing to these campaigus, assumed formilable proportions. The newspaper accomnts of the comntry would alone fill many volumes, and this has been so generally read that a briefer account of the region will now suffice than would. have been otherwise necessary.* The combtry is lelieved, in spite of the Afghan assertion to the contrary, to be rich in mines. Ores of lead and iron, as well as silver and metallic antimony, are known to abound in the IIindoo Koosh and it:s subordinate ranges, and it is a commereinl fact that sulphur and orpiment are brought from. the Hazarah mountains, and salt from Kalabagh and Sistan, at opposite extremities of the country. In the latter district sal-ammonia and alum are found, and saltpetre is plentiful in varions districts. The coal of Candahar is likely before long to beenme of importance, and the existence of gold in the neighbourhood of the capital of that country has heen known for a momber of years. The silver mines of the Pamphir Valley in the Hindoo Koosh were at one time famons, and the excellent iron produced from magnetie iron-sand in the independent tervitory of Bajaur, north-west from Peshawur, is still exported. From Permûli considerable quantities are brought into Cahul, and iron ore is abundant in many parts of the conntry, but eopper, though linown to exist, is nowhere worked. The silieate of zine, whieh comes in nodular masses from the Kakar country, is chiefly used by the cutlers for polishing, while the mative manufacturers of gunpowder are supplied with sulphur and saltpetre from deposits fomd in various districts.

The vegetable productions of Afglanistan are simidar to those of India and Europe, with a few, such as pistacia and edible pine nuts, madder and assafoctida, more peculiar to itself. The tobacco of Candahar is highly esteemed both in and out of the country. Cotton is grown in small quantities, but in addition to the usual crops suitable to the climate of different parts of the country, large quantities of apples, pears, almonds, aprients, quinces, plums, cherries, pomegramates, limes, citrons, grapes, figs, and mulberries are reared to a degree of perfection to which they have attained nowhere else in the East. In their fresh and dried state the Afghan fruits are carried all over Hindostan, and in value exceed the trade in
* In the Proceelings of the Royal Gcographical Society for 1879 and 1880 will be found notes on the chiuf works and reports published of late years. The standard treatises of Elphinstone, Ferrier, Bellew, James, Raverty, Kayc, Macgregor, Lamsden, and Thornton, are always valuable; and in the Proceedings of the Royal Gcographical Socicty, Vol. I. ( 1879 ) pp. 38, 110, 161, 191, 214, and 617, and Vol. 1I. (1880), pp. 212 and 424, will be found abstracts of most of the geographical work accomplished by the survey officers attached to the armips of occupation or invasion.
befure Calmul. by all -" Here his lif: bstone: and the extender scanty proporles, and v suffice of the as well and it: brought tremities Itpetre is ecome of of that Panjshir produced m Peshalul, and exist, is he Kalkar tireers of icts. nle, with to itself. is grown different s, plums, degree of and dried trade in
the chicf ss, Raverty, feographical li he found armirs of
horses and sheep's wool, which form the other consilerable portions of the foreign commerce of Afghanistan. In return for their fruits, wool, und horses, the Lohani merchants (p. 233) take back indigo, muslins, chintz, broud-ctoths, sugar, spices, medieine, salt, silk and cotton fabrics, musk, and other British and Indian manufactures and prolucts. But of monufactures proper the Afghans have few or none. They are a nation of warriors and shepherds, not of art-workmen, miners, or handiceaftsmen. They make coarse cloth for their own use, turbans, felts, "postins," or sheepskin coats, and camels-hair cloaks, or "chogns," the three latter articles being extensively exported to the Peshawur frontier, and the aljoining portion of the Punjab, where they are valued-especially the postins-by the British Indian army, as a part of their winter clothing. The domestic animals of the eomitry are the horse, the sheep, and the camel. The erreat droves of the lirst-mamed animal which are so largely exported to Iulia come for the most part from the West of Afghmistan, but of late years greater care has been bestowed on the breeding of the horse in \(\Lambda\) fghanistan itself, with the result that a superior class of beast is now reaching the market. The camel aud the " yabu," as the short, stont-limbed, harrly indigenons horse is called, are the only beasts of burden used thronghout the country, or employed in the transport trade with the Punjalb and Sindh, on the east and sonth, Persia on the west, and Turkestan on the north. Jhorses, camels, and sheep also constitute the wealth of the nomad tribes, though they have cows, buffaloes, groats, poultry, long-haired Persian cats, and several varieties of dogs, when settled for a time on their farms. The sheep are all of the fat-tailed variety, and are remarkable for the profusion of wool which their flecees hear, and out of which the "postins" are made. The ass is not common in the country, but is a finer animal than that of Hindostan; but in the Western distriet is found a wild ass, and also a wild goat and wild sheep. Mutton constitutes the chief animal food of the people, but the flesh eaten is that of the white-fleceed variety, the wool of which is also exported both to Persia and by way of Bombay to Europe. In the autumn large numbers of sheep, oxen, and even camels, are slaughtered, their flesh rubbed with salt, and sun-lried for winter provisions. Herat is so much more Persian than Afghan in its characteristics that it cainot be taken as a fair specimen of the country. Hence the fine carpets woven in that town and district may be considered a Persian manufacture naturalised here, while the fine rosaries of chrysolite, which are made at Candahar and largely exported to Mecea and other strongholds of Mohammedanism, is an art prodnct peeuliar to this city. The rivers of Afghanistan do not abcund in fish, nor is very varied sport to be had by the eapture of the species which they do eontain. The "mahaser," and another trout-like fish, are those most commonly obtained and held in most esteem by the enthusiastic angler. Reptiles, including some very venomous snakes, are abundant, and birds are numbrous. The \(\Lambda\) fghans are fond of field sports, and accordingly several of the native faleons have been trained to strike at water-fowl, bustards, partridge, quail, and all other sorts of game. They have oven been taught to tackle the ravine deer, by perching on its horns and buffeting its head with their wings, thus delaying its speed, so as to permit of the greyhounds coming up with it. Falconry is, indeed, the Afghan's favourite amusement, and the sport has been brought to the greatest perfection;
but deer-stalking in the open plains, the driving of game to well-known points by a host of beaters, and wild-fowl shooting with decoys, are mongrg the other Afghan lieli. sports notieed by Colonel Yule. As horsemen, the Afghans hold the palm among the Asiutic races, and are unerring marksmen with the native rifle, or "jezail," and though sullen aud incredibly treacherous to strangers, among themselves they are reported to be-when not shooting each other-convivial and humorous. Afghan gatherings are frequent, and tilting, raeing, and music vary on such occasions the somewhat monotonous murder which characterises the intercourse of so many of the tribes.*

The population of Afghanistan-including Afghan Turkestan and the country of the Chitralis and Kaffirs-may be ronghiy estimated at \(\mathbf{i , J 0 9 , 0 0 0}\), but in reality we know very little about the number of people inhabiting some of the more out-of-the way parts; und of the places deserving the name of towns only Caloul, Ghuzni, Cundahar, Herat, and Bamiain need be mentioned.

Cabul-situated 6,400 feet above the sea-level, that is, 5,235 feet higher than Peshawn -is not an imposing eity, though pleasantly surrounded by orehards and gardens. Its cutrances are eommanded by almost perpendienlar and fortified eminences, and on the south-west side, at the base of Baber Badshah, a small hill, is the tomb of the Emperor Baber (p. 277), the founder of the Mogul dynasty in India, but who does not, in his delightful memoirs, speak in very complimentary terms of the place where his ashes were to repose. The Bala Hissar, or Upper Castle, eommands the town on the east and south-east side; while a girdle of bastioned wall shuts in the fort, the palaces of the Ameer and his oflicials, a barrack, and a bazaar. The great glory of Cabul used to be its immense stone-vaulted bazaar. This is, however, a thing of the past, for in 1812 the "Army of Vengeance" destroyed it, on account of the body of our lirst murdered envoy having been exposed in it. Its successor is nevertheless still crowdel with traders, and may be deseribed as an Afghan Shikarpore, only in the Cabul market Central Asia rather more predominates than in the Sindhian one. Ghuzni, cighty-five miles south-west of it, standing on a rock 280 feet above the surrounding plain, and over 7,701 fect above the sea, is a notable fortress, protected by walls and towers, though it has more than once been stormed by the British troops. Before the twelfth century it was the capital of the Ghuznevide kings, a Turkish dynasty who at the height of their power ruled the enormous expanse of country stretching between the Tigris and the Ganges, and between the Jaxartes, or Syr Daryia on the north, to the Indian Oeean. Canhahar-in the upper basin of the Helmand, the eapital of the recently constituted Wali of Candahar-is a populous town, 3,490 feet above the sea, and the great meeting place of the traders between Persia and India. Soon to be connected with the Indus valley by a railway, \(\dagger\) it promises to become a place of great prosperity, and to all intents and purposes Anglo-Indian. Herat is of even more importanee, for it is eonsidered by many strategists to be the "Key of India," a distinction which it owes to its position, at the point whence radiate the great lines of communication to Sistan, Candabar, Cabul,

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* An account of the Afghans and their habits is given in " Races of Mankind," Vol. III., pp. 2.54-275.
+ For a description of this railway, see Sir R. Temple, in Procecdings of the Rayal Geographical Society, Vol. II. (1880), as well as the exhumstive puper of General Sir M. A. Biddulph in the same volume, pp. 212-246.
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s by a In liell. Asiatic llen and hen not I tilting, charac ntry of ality we at-ot-the 'andahar, Peshawur ens. Its on the Emperor \(t\), in his nis ashes the east palaces bul used past, for our first crowdel 1 market ive miles er 7,7011 \(n\) it has entury it eight of gris and n Ocean. 1 Wali of ce of the railway, \(\dagger\) purposes \(y\) many at the Cabul,


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Bokham, Khiva (eiii Merv), mud to the westward by four different routes to ns many importmut Persian cities. In uldition to its central position, tho richness of the phain on which it is built, owing to the fine system of irrigating eamals from the Hurirud River, has from enrly times attracted population both to the eity and the numerons villages seattered over the phain. So lertile is Herat that, though many of the canals have been allowed to fall into ruin, the ecountry still produces grain liar in advance of the wants of its settled inbabitmuts. Sir Heary Rawlinson describes the city as forming a quadraugle of ucarly a milo squure, protected ly walls und a citadel of sun-dried brick on a high urtificial mound. But what distinguishes Herat from other Oriental eities, and it the same time constitntes its chief defence, are the stupendons carthworks on which the city wall is built. This pile avernges 200 feet in width at the base, and about 50 in height, and as it is crowned by a wall 25 feet high and 14 feet thick at the base, silplurted by about 1.50 semicireular towers, and is farther defended by a ditel 45 feet wide and 16 feet deep, it presents the appearance of imposing strength, though General Perrier considers the place as nothing more than a redoubt, which could not hold ont agrainst a Luropean urmy for twenty days it a streteh. The wall is unprotected by flanking defences, and ns the eity is dominated from tho rising ground at the northcast angle, and the water supplying both the ditel and the town could be ent off by un enemy holding the outside eity, it could soon be starved or foreed into suljeetion, the wells and reservoirs inside tho walls being unefual to the wants of the inhabitants. Herat is nevertheless a very strong phace. It has stood repeated sieges, and in 18:37 beat off for ten continuons months a Persinu army of 35,000 regular troops, supported by lifty pieces of artillery, and in many enses-we have Sir Henry Rawlinson's authority for the statement-commandel by Russian officers. It is therefore thought that, though it present weak according to modern idens of strength, with the expenditure of a little money and some engincering skill it could be made one of the least pregmble places in Asia. The population of the city is very fluctuating. It has contained as many as 100,000 inhabitants, but, ly war and neglect the popula. tion bns dwindled away uutil at the present moment it does not number more than about 22,000 souls. There are, imleed, tales of a time when a million and a half of traders and warriors assembled within its walls. If so the city must have been vastly larger than it is at present: but it is always well to treat with discreet seepticism the statements of Oriental historians regarding the magnitude of their cities and tho magnifieence of their kings. The immense mass of ruins, broken pottery, crumbling walls, decayed bricks, and earthen mounds seattered over the plain of Herat point, however, to a period when the "Granary of \(\Lambda\) sia" was a city of infinitely greater magnificence than at present, and some of the aneient pralatial buildings yet remain to uttest, even in their decadenee, the former grandeur of IIerat. For instance, the mosque of Mosulla is described by General Ferrier as still, in spite of its falling into decay, one of the most imposing structures of the kind in Asia. The beautiful blue and gilt tiles, and the texts from the Koran which appear over the arches, Captain Marsh* considers in their execution simply marvellous. The tomb of

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*"A Ride Threugh Islam" (1877), p. 111.
} he phain Hurirud villuges ave been , of the rming a ied brick ties, nul hich the ut 50 in the brise, feet wide General hold out ceted by te north. cut off into sul. ts of the d sieges, 0 regular iir Henry is therewith the e one of 8. It has populi. ber more on and a have been bet scepticities and ry, crumerat point, y greater remain to ance, the ts falling
beautiful he arches, tomb of

Abdullah Ansari, a Mussulman saint, the numerons marble mansoleums of the Prinees of the House of Timur, and various Roynl buildings, are ulso well worthy of notice.

The population of the city and neighhourhood is of a very mixed elaracter. Orginally Arym, they have in time got mixed with 'Tureo-Tartarie dements, and are inferior to the broad-featured, flat-ficeed tribes, who, from the duwn of history, have held the mountains from Cibul to Herat. The listory of Herat is renlly the history of the linst, every dymustic revolution, or foreign invasion, or civil war in Central Asin, linving more or less enntreal mbent that city. In 1934 the Heratees beat off a Persinn army; in 15.57 they became independent, but in 1963 they beemne again ineorporated with the Afghan monarchy, with which sixty years earlier they were conjoined. At present they are nomiunlly subject to Cabul, lint in reality, since thut kingdon has got disrupted, the Heratees may be said to be practically their own masters. Its trade, we may add, is subject to lluetuations. It ean feed a large population over its regular residents; its mountains abound in mincrals; its silk manufactures are, or ought to be, flowrishing; and the carjets of Herat are famons all over the Bast. The net revenuo of the province is said, in ordiuary times, to be ahout \(\mathrm{cl00}, 000\) per anmum, but in the comse of the eudless civil wars and invasions to which it has been subjeeted, Herat has become practically a desert. Wuder a stable government it is eapable of being what it once was-as it is still practically-the "Garden of the last," and the "Gramary of Asia."* Bamiam, beymul the Lajij-Gak Pass, is chefly remarkable for its urehitectural remains and primitive eave dwellings stiil oceupied as houses. Jelalabad, 97 miles from Cabnl-which is agnin 156 from Peslawur, and 307 from Candahar-is pheed at a height of 1,016 feet, in the middle of a plain, well watered and covered with villages, forts, and gardens. 'The town itself is small, and, thongh embosomed in gardens, is of a rather por character. The chief events in its history are the siege which Sir Robert Sale sustaned within its walls from November, 1811, till April, 1812, and its oecupation duriug the reenit war. Charikar and Istalif are larger towns. Kalat-i-Ghilzai is a fortress of some impertance. Girishk is a fort with an insignifieant village about it. Farrah, a place of great antiquity, is surrounded by a huge earthen rampart, but otherwise consists of only a few half-ruined honses, the vicissitudes whieh the town has undergone having nll hut ruined it. Karni, in the Jittleknown country of Ghur, to the east of Herat, is more remarkable for its ruins than for anything else. It may be added that the Akhond of Swat, a semi-religioms, semipolitical potentate, has also in this land of many chicfs a territory, \(\dagger\) and the awe which his mysterious character imposes is all-powerful. The late Akhond, who died in 1577, was a man of the fiereest famatieism; but of his suceessur little is known, and less eired, though in all likelihood he is secretly exeresising influnence more important for exil than many of the chiefs whose names are prominently before the publie.

The future of Afghanistan it is difficult to presage with anything short of pessimism. More than seventy years ago one of the ehiefs told Mountstuart Elphinstone, when he urged

\footnotetext{
*Malleson: "Herat" (1880).
\(\dagger\) Procedings of the Roynl Gographical Society (1880), p. 434; Laitucr: "Kohistan;", Mezököverd: "Kuhistan" (1872), \&e.
}
the advantages of quiet and security under a strong king, "We are content with diseord, we are content with alarms, we are content with blood; but we will never be content with a master." Since those days we have had abundant experience of the Afghans, but nothing has transpired which leads us to question the soundness of this estimate of the people, with whose affairs the Anglo-Indian Government-unhappily for us, and not very fortunately for them-las had so frequently to deal.

\section*{CHAPTER XIII.}

\section*{Afghan 'Iurkestan and tie othen Cextral Asfatic States.}

Far west, in the basin of the Oxns, are several provinces menally considered subjeet to the Ameer of Cabul, and hence, owing to the country here and for far around having originally been under the eontrol of Khans of Turkish origin, it is known as Afghan 'Inckestan, the final syllable "stan," which oecurs in the name of so many Eastern comutries, signifying simply "country." The river Oxns flows through the greater part of Central Asia, and finally debonehes, in the midst of swamps, into the Sea of Aral, though there exists strong grounds for believing that at one periox-but whether in historical or in geological times opinions differ-it reached the Caspian, and of late years strenuons effurts have been made by the Russian anthorities to divert it into its old channel, which can still be tracel, and so supply direct water communication through the heart of Asia, from the territorics of the Czar to the horder of Afghanistan,

\section*{Afgilin Turestan.}

Badakshan, in the valley of one of the tribntaries of the Oxus, famous for its ricc; wheat, horses, eattle, camels, sapphires, rubies, and lapis lazuli, is one of the most easterly of these little States of the Hindoo Koosh. Its capital is a series of small hamlets called Jirm and Faizabad. B.t the Badakshees are in reality not an urban but an agricultural people, and do not therefore herd much in towns. The country has been much sulijeet to civil wars and invasions, and is at present nominally under the rule of the Ameer of Cabul, though the chiefs of the sixteen districts of which it eonsists in reality are independent, and only pay tribute and do military service to the Meer of Faizabad, who in his turn pays-or paid-tribute to the Afghan monareh.

Wakhan, higher up the valley of the Oxns, is in its turn tributary to Badakshan, and being too far removed from the turmoil of the surrounding countries to he much troubled,
h discord, we ntent with at Afghans, but imate of the us, and not
ed subject to round having in as Afghan many Lastem the greater o the Sea of -but whether 1 , and of late it it into its cation through istall.
s for its rice, of the most eries of small an urban but ntry has been nder the rule ch it consists to the Meer adakshan, and nuch troubled,


VIEW OF VANG HASAR. AT THE FOOT OF BHE PAMIR FHAN.
is fairly prosperons and inhabited ly a fine race fond of arms and sports, and deriving a considerable prolit from the transit trade which passes between Eastern and Western Turkestan a' \(\mathbf{n g}\) the Oxus Valley, and over the Pamir Steppe. The slave trade is, however, also one of the sourees of wealth. So abmudant, indeed, are the captives which they kidnap either from the neighbonring prineipalities, or from the "Kaffi" country, that a strong man is considered a fair equivalent for a good dog or horse, while a stout girl will be readily bartered for four horses.*

Kunduz, at one time an independent Khanate, is also now tributary to Afghanistan. The capital of the same name is a small mud town, in the midst of gardens, orchards, and cornfields cultivated by Uzbegs, a Mongolian mee, and Tadjiks, a people of Persian origin. .

Knlm was another Khanate which fell under Afghan confrol. Its old capital was embosomed amid orcharls famons for their productiveness; lut the site of the town exposing it to imroads from the wild Uabeg horsemen, it was transferved to its present site-four miles south—where it consists of "a cheerless æroup of villages, comprised of mud houses with domed roofs, comected by gardens enclosed by a mud wall." it contains about 15,000 people, and does a considerable trade. Another of its strongholds is Haibak, which, with its beehive-like honses elnstering round a castle on an isolated eminence, presents a rather imposing appearance.

Balkh, the Bactria of the Greeks, is a more important State, lying on the border of the Great Turkoman desert; but nowadays it presents no traces of its ancient civilisation, or even of the prosperity whieh it possessed in the days when it was the eentre of Mohammedan civilisation in Central Asia. The eapital, Vem-nl-Bilad (" the mother of cities"), was in those days a large town thirty miles in cirenit. The inner town, surrommed by a runed wall four or five miles in cireumference, is now evely deserted; and but a scanty population occupies the outer city, the bulk of the prople now residing in the new rapital of Afghan Turkestan, the fortified town of Takhtapul, eight miles north of the site of old Bactria.

Andkhi, another oasis formed by the termination of a momntain stream, was long an independent Khanate, inhabited by Turkomans, Tadjiks, and Uqbegs; but it is one of the provinces known as the Four Domains, viz., Shibrghan, Mamana, Siripul, and the oasis named. At one time it contained 50,000 inhalitants, lut it is now fallen into decaly. Maimana, or Maimeyne, is more flourishing. Its peophe, numbering about 100,000 , are Lzbegs, and at one time were notorious slave traders. siripul has fewer people, the greater number Uzbegs, the rest IFazaras. From the latter Colonel Vine mentions that a tribnte of slaves nsed to be exacted by the dominant race, and Hazara widows were at one time clamed as Government property and sold by anction. The settled population is about \(1^{\circ} .900\), but there are also many nomads whose tents dot the valley, and who carry on trade with the owners of the fine orehards and eornfields which now oecupy a considerable part of it.

\footnotetext{
* Yute: "Book o: Sur Marco Folo," Vol. I., p. 18i1; Wool: "Sommey to the Source of the liver
 180; Vule: Ibit, p. 438; Rawlinson: Ibid, 1. 482, and Proccelings uf the Royal Gcoqrophirul Siweiet!, Vol. XVII., p. 108; Yule: Encyclopedin Britamica; Busslem: "A Prup into Turkestan," \&e.
}

Akcha was before the Afghan conquest also a petty Khanate, but has now falien under the rule of the conqueror of the provinees mentioned, the greater number of whom are only partially dependent, and most probably ly this time have again shaken off the lanse yoke of the Ameer of C:bul's lientenants.

\section*{Petty Mhalayng Kengions and Repeblecs.}

These do not, however, include all the petty States or ehieftainships which lie in the seeluded valleys of the Ilindoo Koosh and neighbouring ranges. But it would be aut unfruitful task to simply enumerate the others, none of them being, either singly or (",mblined, of any importance whatever. Wakhsh, Khotl, Darwaz, Roshan, Shiguan, and the valley of the Warlodj are all minor sovereignties, which maintain, as thry have maintained for agres, a more or less complete autonomy. The latter valley exeited the admiration of Captain Wool as he returned from the Blaek Pamir Steppe. "Everything wore the grorgeous air of spring. The change was delightful. When we passed up, snow lay everywhere. Now the plough was in the field; wild Howers were sparkling among the withered herbage of the bygone year; and around the alges of the stones tults of young grass were everywhere to be seen. The sheep, let towse from their sheds, were remmerating themselves for the dry and seanty fare of their winter quarters. The streams were all unlocked, and wo encamped in the open air. The raven, the jay, the lark, the bulbul, or Balakshan nighitingale, were all on the wing. Numerous insects, too, aroused from their long sleep, began to show themselves. Anmig them were butterlies, and a most beautilul painted species of gallly." To linish this idyllic picture, "the fine swarl was enamelleal with crocuses, daffodils, and suluwlrops." This attractive deseription of one valley of the Hindoo Koosh in spring will apply to most of them. They are, however, often oasses in a desert, and at best sheltered glens surrounded by mountains frequently bleak and forbidding in the extreme.

Among the southern spurs of the Hindoo Koosh alse live the peculiar reerple known as Kifflis (that is, infidels) and Siahpoosh, against whom the Molammedians repeatedly make shave-lunting raids. They are perhaps survivors of the old Aryans, the stock from whom the Hindoos and the majority of eivilisel mations are sprung, and may be akin to the peophe on the Cashmere frontier, whom Major Biddulph, who leas been recently examining them, pronomees also to be Aryans. Dr. Bellew eonsidered some of the tribes south-west of Dardistan, though akin to the Darls, also of the same race, theugh, unlike that prople, they have not embracel Mohanmedanism. They are usially fair-haired and blueeyel.* Chitral, in the upper valley of the Beilim or Kunar River, is an even lesskuown kinglom. The country is independent, and the people, Dards and Dungars, tall, athletie, but cowardly, and the women sail to be coarse and immodest. Chitral and Yassin

\footnotetext{
* " Races of Mankind," Vol. III., 1p. 2-76-286; Jourual of the Asintic Society of Benget, November th, 1s.0; "Notes on Kafirstan," by Captain Raverty; "Chureh Missionary Intelligenee," 186.; "Chureh Missionary (ileaner," 1865; also, fol an account of the Dards, Drew: "The Northern Barrier of India" (1875), und "The Jummo and Kashmir Territories" (1875); and Bellew : "Kashnir und Kashgar" (1878).
}
have from time immemorial been under the rule of chiefs who claim descent from Alexander the Great, through the kiars of Khorassan. These rulers, like their people, are bigoted and fanatieal to a degree which ean only be equalled in Swat. But while

the Swotees recognise their Akhond simply as a spiritual authority, the inhabitants of Chitral and Yassin are as much subjeet to their rulers as if they were serfs. Gilgit was also, up to about the year 1558, a part of the Yassin territory. But at that date the Mahamajah of Cashmere began that series of ruthless, anprovoked hostilities, which
he continued until the valley was almost desolate and his power was established in the Fort, where a British Resident now resides. Yassin has also been devastated by the foulest raids, the inhabitants massacred with ineredulous atrocity, and thousands carried off into slavery, without the British Government evidently being aware that all this was being done by their ally, now an honorary general in our army. Gilgit is about 1,500 feet ahove the sea, and is one of the three independent States which once lay aloug the valley of the river of the same name. But Punial is now governed by a Rajall dependent on Cashmere, and Gilgit is directly administered by the Maharajah's oflicers.


VIEW OF LAKE VGTOLIA, HAMLK STEP'PE
Yassin is still independent, and for some time past its ruthless enemy has abstained from troubling it. It is well watered, and yields good crops of the products of mildly temperate countries,* and even some of the precious metals. In the Chitral country the gallant young explorer, George Hayward, was basely murdered in July, 15in), at the instigation of Mir Wali, on whose friendship he had relied, and whose interests he had endeavonred to advance. In Asia every little valley usually teems with inhabitants, and in the wide regions into which the reader has been introluced almost every glen has its own petty nationality, ruled by its own sovereign, or in some cases even groverned on the republiean principles so strange to the Astatic ideas of the relations between man and man. Baltistan is the name, for example, applied to the

\footnotetext{
" Drew: "The Northern Barrier of Imba," p. 15s.
}
mountainous and little-known region which extends lor sixty miles by thirty-six in the upper valley of the Indus. The chief town is Skardo, and lor a time the country was called Bolor, though, owing to Humboldt and Ritter having transferred the name to an imaginary rauge of mountains, supposed to be the meridional range of Asia, the mame has got inextricably into confusion in geographical nomenclature. The valleys of the Gilgit, Mastinj, and Chitral are governed on the principles of pure despotism, untempered by even a pretence of recognising the rights of the ruled. But in the valleys which lead to the Indus, Mr. Drew tells us that there are republies, free und demoeratic. Most of them are, indeed, exceedingly petty, that probably being one of the reasons why they have not been thought worth disturbing. Thalichin, for example, may be chamacterised as the smallest independent State in the world, for it is simply a little village of seven houses autonomously governed. The Sign, or village parliament, is the legislative assembly which arranges the affiins of these valley republics, and so thoroughly demoeratic are they, that if even one man of any consequence objects to a particular line of policy his scruples are respected and the assembly adjourns, to meet after the opposition has been overruled, or the proposal so modilied as to meet with his approval. If the valley is large then there is usually a parliament for every village, while what is ealled the Federal or Executive Council of the State consists of the combined Joshteros, dignitaries elected at intervals on the gromuds of their reputed wisdom or known wealth. Finally, if the policy is of high moment, there is a "mass meeting" of all the people ealled, and the poliey of the "mation" is decided in accordance with their voles. Mr. Drew thinks that in the republican valleys of the ILmabay spors there are fewer foreign wars but less internal security; "in the republics personal independence and liberty of action are so much the rule that no one interferes to prevent even violence."

\section*{'Tue Pamir Sthepe.}

Crossing the Panja, we reach the village of Langar-Kaish, 10,500 lect above the sea, and stanl on the great lamir table-land. In this region we find a knotted mass of mountains, the converging point of the Jhian Shan and of the Karakoram and Kuen Len ehains of the Himalayan range. This momatain-land, between the upper Oxas valley and the basin of Lastern 'Iurkestam is, perbaps, even yet, one of the least known parts of the world, in spite of the many ellorts made of late years by Russian and English offieers to explore it.*

It is as bleak and cheerless a region as Mareo Polo described it, and his deseriptions have in all material points been conlimed hy Captain Wood, General Gordon, and MM. Severtsoff and Oshanin. It is the spot whence the grathering waters of several rivers How to different parts of Asia, and where lonely lakes gather the drainage aud rainfall which are to fertilise the oases hundreds of miles distant 'rom the sources of the river which supply the water to the irrigating canals. The platean is about 180 miles long and 100 in breadth from east to west. "It con-

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 World " (1870).
}
six in the e country the name Asia, the valleys of otism, unthe valleys demecratic. lie reasons e, may be e village of legislative democratic lar line of the unposiIf the valley called the , dignitarics. wn wealth. the people Mr. Drew foreign wars of action are
pove the sea, ted mass of and Kuen Oxus valley own parts of glish officers
his descriperal Gordon, g waters of gather the niles distant canals. The
"It coll-
he Roof of the
sists," writes Colonel Yule, "chiefly of stretshes of tolerably level steppe, broken and dividet by low. rounded hills, much of it covered with saline exudations, and interspersed with patehes of willows and thomy shrols, and in summer with extensive traets of grass two or three feet in height, the fattening properties of which have been extolled by travellers, from Marco Polo to Faiz Buksh. Many lakes are seattered over the surlace of the platean, from which streams flow. Wild fowl abound apon the lakes in summer to ant extraordinary degree; and in the vicinity water deer of some kind are very numerons, and the great sheep (Ovis Poli) apparently all over the platean. In 1869 a murrain among these latter is said to have killed them off in multitudes. A goat called lang, afforling a fine slawl-wool, is found on the steppe; also a kind of lyux, whose fur is valned. Foxes and wolves frequent Pamir; bears and tigers are oceasional visitors. The wild yak, according to laiz Buksh, is alsn fonnd there; if this be troe, Pamir is its west and north limit. Pamir was at one time the summer haunt of a large nomad population of Kirghi\%, with their mumerous floeks; but the depredations of the Shighmis (regarded also with horror by the Kirghi\% as Shiah heveties), and other kidnapping neighbours, are said to have diriven them to the eastern valleys, or to the Kokan territory, and the only summer visitors now are abont one thousand families, who frequent the shores of Rangkul in Little Pamir." In Mooreroft's time some of these Kirghiz pastured on these lofty grazing lands 30,000 sheep and goats, 500 yaks, and 200 eamels. The great height of the platean renders the air so rarefied as to make respiration diffientt. Even this tromble is experienced by the natives, who use dried fruits, garlic, and lecks as antidotes. The platean is broken by spurs and peaks. But so little is known that it is still a geographieal problem whether there is or is not a meriodonal range on its eastern confines. MM. Severtsoff and Mushketoff-the Russian explorersare inelined to eonsider them as extensive highlands covered with a somewhat complicated system of mountain ranges. Mr. Haywarl considered that they form a continuous north and sonth range, while Professor ledehenko was of opinion that the so-called mountains were only the bluff escarpment of a table-land. Among the lakes, Siri-Kul, Sikaulari Kul, or Vietoria (p. 245), is one of the largest. It is fourteen miles long and about a mile in breadth, and is bordered on ali sides by high hills and even lofty mountains. It is 15,500 fret above the sea, and the source of one of the branches of the Oxis, the other having heen traced by the " Mirza"--one of Colonel Muntgomerie's native gengraphien spies- to Pamir Kıl, at a height of 13,300 feet. The nir is so murefied that when Captain Wood attompted to loreak the ice on the lake a few strokes of the piekaxe proluced such exhanstion that he and his companions had to lie down to recruit their strength, A musket loaded with blank cartridge sounded as if the charge had been pomred into the barrel and neither wads nor ramrod used. Even when ball was introduced, the report, thongh louder, wanted that sharpuess which marks similar discharges in denser atmospheres. Many of the party were dizzy with headache; any sort of muscular exertion sonn beeame very distressing. Conversation it, was impossible to keep np, and a run at full speed produced pain in the lomgs and prostration that lasted for some hours. The line of perpetual snow is in the Pamir something over 17,000 feet, but by the end of June the ice is broken up, the lakes
covered with uquatic birds, and the country beginuiug to be covered with that nourishing grass which makes at present, and in former times made it still more, the pastoral paradise of the wandering Kirghiz shepherds.* It may be added that the Kara-Kul, another of the Pamir lakes, is, like many of the waters of these inland regions of Asia, decreasing. 'The north-eastern outtlow has ceased, though there is one occasionally to the south-west, but not annually, as supposed by General Gordon. The observation of Severtsoff confirms the statement of the old Chincse traveller, Hwen Thsang, and proves Kostenko to have been in ertor when he dechared that it had no discharge.

\section*{"The Khanates."}

Had these pages been written a few years ago the number of independent States familiarly known under the title of "the Khanates" would require to have been considerably extended. But of late years the Czar of Russia has, either through circumstances within or beyond his own control, been pushing his conquest from the West twwards the last, until at the present moment only fragments of the great empire of 'l'imur Leng and Ghenghiz Khan in Central Asia remain under native rulers. The almost endless wars which the country has been the scene of during late years has also greatly aided our geographical knowledge. It is less than twenty years since Arminius Vambéry succeeded in penetrating the region in the disguise of a dervish, but in the interval scientific explorers and surveyors have passed over the greater part of it, and the literature of Central Asia has assumed proportions so great that it already demands the almost undivided attention of a specialist. \(\dagger\) In a former work, \(\ddagger\) somewhat full accounts were given of the people and government, as well as to some extent of the general character of these Khanates, and in a former part of the present volume Khasgar, and the Ili valley, with some of the neighbouring Russian territory, was sketehed. It is therefore unneeessary to occupy more space in this portion of our travels in Central Asia than is required to sketch the present condition of the Khanates under native and Russian rule, a plan which will equally suit the patience of the reader and the limits to which we must confine our remarks. The breadth of this territory at its narrowest part is about 100 miles-that is to say, the Russian ontposts approach to within about \(\mathbf{1 0 0}\) miles of Afghanistan. The whole area of Independent Turkestan may be taken at 194,000 square miles, containing a seattered population of over three millions, found mainly in a few busy though half-ruinous towns, and in the oases or fertile spots which dot the great sandy deserts which for the most part charaeterise Central Asia in this direction. In other words, the Khanate of Khiva, exeluding that portion whieh has fallen under Russian control, contains some 700,000 people; Bokhara rather over two millions; the petty Principality of Karategin 100,000;

\footnotetext{
* Wood: "A Journey to the Souree of the River Oxns" (New Edition, 1873); Hutton: "Central Asia" (i87ij), sec. de.
\(\dagger\) M. V. J. Mejow has compied a catalogue of the works on Central Asia in his library. It comprime; 3,000 mullications, for the most part in tho Russian language.
\(\ddagger\) "Races of Mankind," Vol. 1V., pp. 223-227.
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\section*{ent States} ave been ph eireumthe West empire of lers. The late years nty years uise of a over the so great a former is well as er part of 1g. Russian \(e\) in this : eondition he patience dth of this n outposts ndent Turon of over nd in the most part of Kliva, ae 700,000 100,000 ;

Central Asia" It comprix;

and the Turkoman country noarly 180,000 -these figures heing, however, in every ase little better than estimates, or even gruesses. The omly inhabited or fertile part of Khira is that watered by the irrgating camals along the left bank of the Oxus, not fir from where it falls into the Sen of Aral. It yields grain and fruit in abuabance, and the people produce considerable quantities of inlerior silk from the silkworms which are reared here in great numbers. But the trade of the Khanate is almost entirely in the hands of the Russians, who have a flotilla on the Sea of Aral, and have of late made clforts to make the Amu Daryn, or Oxus, navigable on to the borders of Afghanistan.* The Uzbegs, Turkomans, Kirghiz, and Persians also carry on

crossing the syr-dativa.
sume commerce by means of camel caravans, which cross the Steppes to Oreuburg and Astrakhan, and to Kmanovolsk, on the Caspian, where there is a Russian port through which grools are introduced into the comutry. But in this we have no share. 'Trade with Khiva is strictly confined to the subjects of the Czar, whose vassal the Khim is. For the present he still maintains a semblance of authority in the town of Khiva, situated on one of the eanals drawn from the Oxus, and which prior to the Russian conquest was one of the most infamous of the Central Asian nests of the slave trade. The greater momber of these captives were Persians, either taken in raids by the Turkomans, or obtained directly by the robber elans of the Khira sovereign. But there were also Russians and Russian subjects among those who had been kiduapped on the shores of the Caspian. This circumstance first brought the Khan into collision with the Czar's troops, and finally led to the invasion of 1872 , which lost him
*Wood: "The Shores of Lake Aral," (1876); Morgan: Journal of the Royal Gcographical Society, Yol, XLVIII. (18;8), p. 301, sc.

197
the greatest part of his territory, nud permittel the fatuous prince the enjoyment of the rest simply as the suffragan of the Russimn Emperor,*

Bokhara was, once upon a time, one of the most powerful of the Central Asiatic Khanates. Politically it wis not efpul to Afghanistan, lant it was the Meeen of the Asiatic Mohammedmes. The shrines of Moslem saints senttered over its holy soil, and the schools and colleges of its eapital, gave it, in the eyes of a preple with whom religion and rule are inseparally mixed up, a distinction over kingloms more powerful in men nud arms. Yet it is nearly four times the size of molern Khiva, and hus a population almost three times us numerons. The bunks of the Oxus, und the region fertilised by the water drawn lrom it by the Zarafshan River Camal, is nlumet the only part of the country cultivinted. Ontside these oases the land is desert, saludy steppe, in which a well is a highly-valued possession, In the watered region, cotton, silk, grains, and fruits are grown, and in these products, and in the broal-tailed sheep nud cattle reared, a consideralle trade is done with the camel-caravams passing to the shores of the Cuspian, rii Khivn, and northward to Siherii, and westward to Chima. \(\dagger\)
" lokhara the uoble," as the eapital was once styled, little merits nowulays its pmpons designation. Vimbèry deseribes it as one of the dirtiest and most unheallhy phaces in all Asia, and later travellers havo given a seareely more flattering necount of this once famous eity, which the inhabitants claim to have been founded by Alexander the Great, among the reels and fens of the Zarafshan River oasis. Its population, conn sisting of Uzlegs, Afghaus, Arabs, Jews, Nogais (Russian 'Tatars), Kirghiz, Tadjiks, Hindoos, and Turkomans, do not number mueh over 30,000 , thongh Wolfi has estimated them as high as 180,000 . The place, however, still boasts of many colleges or "medresses," mud the spiritual wants of the people are catered to by a multitude of molluls, whose mosques still retain something of their ancient splendour. The city is surrounded by a wall four miles in circuit, and pierced by eleven crumbling gates, The lazaars, frequented by almost every Asiatic poople, presents a busy sight; while at Karshee, sonth-east of the capital, and also a great trading place, excellent sworls, knives, and other artieles of eutlery are forged. The Khan is an unqualified despot, but 1: power is on the wane, sinee part of his ancient territory has passed into the hands of Russia. Fifty years ago this Central Asiatic monarch was courted by the English aum the Russians, much after the same fashion as the Shah of Persia is, or was, or as the Amir of Afghanistan insel to be. But Nasrollahl Bahnuler treated the one with arroganee and the other with contempt, the consequence of which was that his successor, Mozalfar-edlin, found an army of the Czar in his territory, and by 1868 a Russian garrison firmly stationed in Samareand. The result is that Bokhara has become thongh nominally independent, in reality a dependency of Russia, which camnot fail belore long to absorl) it entirely. These Central Asiatic Khamates have a fatalism for rmang their heads against the pricks, and the Manghit dymasty, which succeeded in

\footnotetext{
* Burnaby: "A Ride to Khiva" (187i); NacGahan: "Campaigning on the Oxus" (1874): Rawlinson: " Bnghand and Russia in the East" (1874); Baker: "Clouds in tho East" (1876); Clarke: "Statistics and Geegraphy of Russian 'Turkestan" (1879) ; and Sohuyler's and Vambèry's works passim.
\(\dagger\) Vumbery: "skizzenbilder unf den Morgenlande" (1874); "Sketeles of Central Asia" (1875).
}
of the Asiatic of the ly soil, le with ns more Khiva, und the is nlount itt, sumdy :on, silk, heep mad te shores \(\dagger\) whys its mhealthy ccount of llexander ion, eonTadjiks, estimated lleges or titude of e city is ng gates. at ; while t swords, spot, but hands of ylish and As , or : s one with successor, Russian become mot fail alism for ceeded in

Rawlinson: tatistics and
seizing the Bokharn throne on the full of the Ashtarkhandes, loes not seem likely to stuve off the inevituble very long.*

Karategin-a mountuinous district on the western slepe of the Pamir Steppe-was, with the valley of the Sarkhan River and its tributaries, ma independent prineipulity up to the period of Russin's monexing the Khanate of Khokm, or Fergham, when it pussed under the rule or "protection" of Bokhara. Gharm, or Karategin, the capital, contuins about 800 houses. Litfle gromd is cultivated, bat eattle are bred, und rough woollens weven of the theece of their sheep, or of the hair of gonts. (Gold is found in the sands of the streams, and excellent weapens are made of the iron bronght from Hissur and Wanteh. The preparation of sult, and the hunting of wild beasts, also give employment to many of the population. But altogether Karutegin, which does not contain more than 100,000 people, chielly of a very moderate Mohammedan laith, with its thiekly wooded mountains, and sechudel pastoral valleys, has not much concern with the world which formerly so little troubled it. \(\dagger\)

\section*{The Tcheman Country.}

Between the Oxus and the northern frontier of Persia, and as far west as the Russian provinces on the other side of the Cuspian, stretches the Kara-Kum, or Black Sands, in desert almost unelieved by a single fertile spot. But by the wild Turkommes, or nomadie rohber tribes, it is regarded as the most effectual of burriers between them and the rivilisation whieh is foreign to their ways of life. These Turkomans are for the most part predatory. They cultivate a few spots on the borders of the desert, where the streams which flow down from the Persian and Afghan highlands moisten the dry soil before being lost in the sand of the Kara-Kum. But the main resouree of these untamed Jartars is highway robbery. The trader and the traveller in the vieinity of their comentry dread, with reason, the onslaughts of these Asiatie Bedouins, and the frontier fums and villages of Persia have for many years been harassed by the Turkoman robbers in search of phander and slaves. Persian captives are unmerous among them, and more recently they have not spared even the lussian settlements, an imprudence which has now brought on them the vengemee of the Czar. TWry own no regular chiefs, nor do they possess what can be designated a form of government. ivaever, for mutual protection and convenienee they have gathered into hitle tribes, the most powerful of which are the Tekkes, whose strongholds aro to be found all along the borters of Persia, from Kyzylarvat to the southwest of Merv, generally considered the Turkoman capital. The Tekkes are, indeed, one of the fen Turkoman tribes which can be considered non-namadic. Dr. Schuyler describes them as half sedentary, living in large villages, and submitting in some degree to the authority of their elders, thus constituting a society with a primitive form of organisation.

\footnotetext{
"Vambèry: "History of Bokhara" (1873), and Grigorief's critique on it translated in Appendix II. of Schuyler's "Turkestan," Yol. I., pp. 360-389, strictures which must, however, be read with many allowances; Wolf: "Travels in Bokhara" (18.4). Khanikoff : "Bokhara" (1815). Fedchenko: Journul tf the hoyal Geographicel Society, Vol. XL. (1870), p. 448. Hellwald; "Tho Russians in Central Asia" (1875); Meyendorft : "Bokhara" (1877).
\(\dagger\) Abramof: Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, Vol, XLI. (1871), p. 338.
}

Hence they are the strongest of the race, and their alaman, or raids, will sometimes extend as far as Meshad and even Herat. Colonels Markozof and Stoketof deseribe a Tekke "anl" as having the "kibitkas," or dwellings, armanged on two sides of the fort, which is usually the centre of their encampment. Bags of wheat, rice, and sorghum, carpets, felts, and household articles, are the contents of the huts, and oceasionally an apparatus for smelting copper, agricultural tools of a primitive kind, looms for weaviug carpets, and some of the apparatus used for breelers of silkworms may be seen. Horses, cattle, pigs, and fowls wander about, and near the fort are small gardens planted with poghers and cottom. Small water-mills are also ustally established near each font. 'The inhabitants of the Tekke oasis, as far as the fortress of Aner,

call themselves Akhal, to distinguish themselves from the Tekkes. The latter are nomimally under the Khan of Khiva, to whom they formerly paid the tribute, one camel for each fortress, but that has now been replaced by about twelve roubles a year for each irrigating canal. Above twelve years ago, the Akhal Tekkes were governed by an independent Khan who enjoyed absolute authority. But at last, tired of the constant quarrels of his tribesmen, he retired to Merv, and left the people to the anarehy which has ever sinee been their doom. The Akhal Tekkes are divided into two families- (he Tokhtamish and the Utamish-who are always rivals, in spite of efforts at mion inspired by dread of the menaees of Russia on one side, of the Persian Kurds on another, and of the Khivan Yomuds in a third direction.

The Russians have recently undertaken to subdue the Tekkes, who least of all the Turkoman tribes have established friendly relations with the rulers of the Trans-Caspian district. This will entail the capture, and probably the oesupation, of Merv, a place about
which public opinion has of late years greatly occupied itself. In reality, this town, like so many others on which the traveller in Central Asia continnally comes amid tho drifting sands, or in the oases which the neglect of the irrigating canals are allowing to lapse into desert, half-ruined, is much more imposing in a "leading article" than in its poor reality. Placed, however, in the oasis of the Murghab, one of the few habitable spots in an arid land, Merv has always maintained a certain celebrity. Sir Henry Rawlinson

coldt of tie palace of the ex-khin of khokan.
r,msiders it one of the oldest capitals in the world, and historically so important as to require a special monograph for its adequate illustration.* It, however, lost all political significance in 1795, when the Amir Murad of Bokhara, not content with the submission of the town, carried off 40,000 of its inhabitants to his capital, wher their desecudants live to the present day in a separate quarter, and have taught the Bokharans the silk mdustry, which they did not understand before their arrival. \(1_{i i} 1815\) the Khivans occupied Merv. The Bokharans soon regained possession of it, but were before long

\footnotetext{
* Proccedings of the Royal Geographical Socicty, March, 1879, p. 188.
}
compelled to surrender it into the hands of the Tur omans, who now used it mainly as a base for their operations agenst the Persians. There a:e not more than 2,000 settled inhabitants in the town, which is surrounded by nomad eneampments of Sariks and Salors in continuons suecession along the banks of the Murghab. The place, though old, is one of the least known in Central Asia. It is, however, a mistake to suppose that no educated travellers lave visited it, for in the course of the last half century Burnes, Abbot, Shakespeare, Taylour Thomson, Wolff, and Blocqueville, the latter a French gentleman who was kept in captivity for fourteen months by the Tekkes, have, among others, all passed through the town, or resided in it, and most of them have published aceounts of it.*

The number of the Turkomans can only be known approximately, but from rough estimates they are eonsidered to approach 200,000 . Their breed of horsemen are fine, their courage unimpeachable, and their ferocity, if it were possible to keep it in cheek, would make them the terror of any barbarous race against whom they might be employed as irregulars in the pay of a civilised power. To this they must in time deseend, for the area of "independent" Turkestan-Khiva, Bokhara, and the 'Turkoman country-is little by little, and now and then very rapidly, getting so curtailed, that before long it will only exist in the pages of histcry.

\section*{CHAPTER XIV.}

Russian Central Asta.
Up to the year 1864, the Russian possessions in Central Asia were small. But shortly prior to that date anarchy reigued in the comutry, owing to the almost continual wars which the Khans of Bokhara, Khokan, and Khiva had waged with each other. The arrival of the Czar upon the seene resulted in the invasion of Khokan, the ocenpati:: of the city of Tachkend, now the capital of the Russian Central Asiatic territories, and finally, in 1867, the absorption of the entire Khanate. By 1868 Samareand -the famons capital of the mighty empire of Timour Leng, and the place wherein dad "Kublai Khan a stately pleasure dome decree"-fell, and with it that part of Bokhara of which it was the immediate centre, which was forthwith erected into the Province of Zarafshan. The eircumstances which led Kuldja to be temporarily occupied in 1871 we have already related (p. 95), whilst the third campaign agaiust Khiva, as we have seen, terminated in 1873 by the capital of that Khanate and the Khivan tervitory along the right bank of the Oxus, or Amu Darya, Eoing ceded to the invaders. The Russian conquests now extended as far as the Attrek on the frontiers of Persia, and when in 1375 the Khanate of Khokan was finally incorporated into the empire of the

\footnotetext{
* Kostenko: "Central Asia," pp. 21-22; Morgan: Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, Vol, XLVIII. (1878), p. 312 ; Tour ds Monde, 1866, \&c.
} inhabid Salors h old, is oose that century latter a :es, have, of them
om rough ine, thicir uld make ployed as l, for the -is little will ouly
nall. But continual ach other. the oeenatio terriSamareand herein dul Bokhat: of rovinee of 1871 we have sech, fory along ers. The Persio, and ire of the

Czar, the summit of the range of the Western Thian Shan mountains hecame the eastern limits which perforee had to own the rule of Alexander II. In brief, Russia has in sixteen years added a million and a half of square miles to her Asiatie possessions. But, with searcely an exception, this tervitory is practically worthless to her. It does not pay its expeuses; and the \(4,000,000\) inhabitants, though almost eompelled to buy Russian goods, are rapidly beginning to find English wares in their bazaars, and to discover that in spite of duties considered almost prohibitory these articles can be purehased cheaper than those brought direet from Russial by way of the Caspian. This, at least, is the compluint of the Russians themselves.

\section*{The Kirginz Steppe, etc.}

The Kirghiz Steppe, as the northern part of the region is called, is a dry, stony tract, inhabited by few Rassians, and used in common by various Kirghiz tribes as a 4 hare-ground for their droves of horses and eattle. The southern portion, from the wwater lake, or inland sen, of Balkash (p. 95), to the Thian Shan and the sea of Aral, is better, though a great part of che western region is covered by the Kizil Kum, © Red Sands, stretehing between the Syr Darya and Amu Darya-or, as the ancients called them, the Jaxartes and Oxns rivers. The east division is, on the other hand, for the most part mountainous, and comprises the high ranges north of the Thian Shan. The low-lying "Seven Streamland" south of the Balkash yields erops and pasturage, and in the mountain valleys watered by the feeders of the Syr Darya, and of Lakf Balkash, are some fine valleys, while, as we have seen, the mountain slopes yield excelleat timber. The shores of the Issik-Kul (p. 90) -a lake which oceasionally overflows to the River Chui, and helps to swell the waters lost in the desert between Balkasla and the Aral-seems in remote days to have been the home of many people. Indeed, all this region is now only a wreek of what it once was. Every valley bears the trace of having in fatier days supported a great, population; and their tangled history is the tale of \(n, \ldots\) onessive conquerors reared and destroyed empires, until the ruined races either \(\therefore\)... ir. :nto semi-barbarism, or lost the enterprise and spirit which once distinguished thon. The Ili Valley* we have already described, with the Chinese and Russian settlemists along the banks of the river which gives its name to the region (p. 97).

\section*{Frighana.}

The Narin Valley, or Ferghana, \(\dagger\) was for the most part the former Khanate of Khokan, Kokan, or Khokand, as the name is often written, which in 1875 lost its independenee. The Usbeg., r. Uzbeks, a Turkish people who three hundred years ago eonquered the small

\footnotetext{
* Far ', mr trent account of Kuldja, see Major Clarke in Proceelings of the Royal Geographical Society, Augnst, 1880, 1p. 489-499.
+ Scectsoff: "Journey in Fcrghana and the Pamir, in 187i-8," Procecdiags of the Roynt Geographical Society, August, 1880, p. 400.
}

native police at the gate of the mosqee of shall zindeh, bamabcand.
States which then divided Central Asia amongst them, and still maintains political supremacy, are the most numerous raee in the country, though Kipehaks, Kara Kirghiz, and Tadjiks also comprise a considerable portion of the population which-nomad and
settled-does not number over one million. The climate is more equable than in most other parts of Russian Turkestan, being warmer in winter, when little snow falls, but on summer days Dr. Schuyler describes the heat as differing little in intensity between Tashkend and Khokan, but the nights are always cool and comfortable. The soil is rich, and this, combined with the excellence of the climate, has put agriculture into a flourishing condition in the Khanate, though it is still capable of being much further


THE TOMB OF saint daniar-palvan, Neal s.imarcand.
advanced. The mountains abound in minerals, coal-crops in places, and naptha and petroleum wells have been feand in numerous localities. It is also affirmed that copper, lead, iron, as well as inferior tin quarries, are to be found. Khokan, the capital (p. 203), lies in a valley south of the Syr Darya, but Tashkend, built on a fertile plain near one of the northern tributaries of the Syr, is the largest town in Russian Turkestan, and the seat of the Government. It is surrounded by a wall of sun-dried bricks twelve miles in circunference, and owing to its being the meeting-place of several great caravan routes, is one of the busy trading places in the country.

Since the Russians have obtained possession of it Tashkend has wonderfully changedfor the better or the worse. The native city still exists pretty much as it always did, and does not differ except in degree from any of the other drowsy Central Asiatic towns. But the European quarters are so very modern that Dr. Schuyler, looking at it for the first time by moonlight could scarcely believe that he was not in one of those brand-new American "cities" with which he was so familiar at home-more paiticularly one of the little towns of Central New York. "The broad, dusty streets, shaded by double rows of trees; the sound of rippling water in every direction; the small white houses, set a little back from the street, with trees and a palisade in front; the large square full of turf and flowers, with a little church in the middle-all combined to give me this familiar impression. By daylight, however, Tashkend seems more like one of the Western American ten:.s-Denver, for instance-though lacking in the busy air which pervades that place, and with Sarts in turbans and gowns, in place of Indians and miners. The conditions of the town are, indeed, much the same: it is built on the Steppe, and owes its green and fresh appearance to the canals which bring streams of fresh water through every strect. The sides of the streets are planted with poplars and willows, which in this country grow quickly and luxuriantly; a small stake driven into the ground soon becomes a fine tree; gardens spring up almost like magic; and \(I\) saw in the garden of a laboratory a peach-tree bearing peaches the third year from the seed." When Schuyler visited the place-and we are led to understand from more recent travellers that it has not increased greatly since that date-there were about 600 houses in the Russian quarter, and a population of 3,000 , exclusive of the garrison of about 600 . New houses were springing up rapidly, and the growth of the town in its nine years of existence seemed to the traveller something wonderful. But on closer examination this seeming vitality proved to be very artificial. The real, permanent population of the city is small, for trade, in the European acceptation of the term, is trifing. There are few great merchants, and manufactories do not exist. A handful of people come to make money and return "home" to spend it, but with these exceptions no one lives in Tashkend who is not obliged to do so by pressure of official duties. This distinguishes it at once from similar American towns; and moreover in Tashkend most of the pretty houses which the visitor so admires have been built by the aid of money lent by the Government, of which, it may be added, but little is ever repaid. Sun-dried bricks covered with plaster are the usual material of which the buildings are constructed, and they are seldom more than one storey high. "Owing to the scarcity of wood, and the dearness of iron, the roofs are very peeuliar ; between the rafters which compose the ceilings pieces of small willow branches are closely fitted together, the whole is then thatched with reeds, and on this is placed a layer of clay every year to render the roof in any degree waterproof. During the summer, when it does not rain, these roofs are excellent and very pretty, as thoy are often covered with wild poppies, capers, and other flowers. When the rainy season commences one must be very careful; it may be that too many layers of clay have been placed on the roof, and the timbers have become worn, so that the whole thing falls through; or perhaps not enongh clay has been put on, and one violent rainstorm is sufficient to wash a large hole in it." In Central Asia upholsterers are
unknown, and hence, as all furnituro has to be brought from Europe or Siberia, simplieity is the rule. Still the houses, in spite of their fragility, are comfortable. Tho want of Western appliances is to a great extent redeened by the great wide divans, the profusion of Turkoman carpets, the embroidered cushions, and the display of Oriental weapons, armour, and curiosities, which give the rooms an air of elegance which they would not otherwise possess. In the summer all who can afford it leave their town-house and take refuge from the heat in cottages built among the gardens of the suburbs, or in Kirghiz kibitkas, or Bokharan pavilion tents. The sun does not penetrate through the foliago of the elms and poplars; there is a fragrance of flowers all round, and a coolness imparted by the canals and watery ponds. "When at night the paper lanterns stand out against the dark green of the pomegranates, while the nightingale sings as the light shimmers over the still surface of the water, it is a scene taken bodily from the 'Arabian Nights.'" The Palace of the Governor-General, the publie buildings, the mosques, and the Buddhist temple are the chief structures. Hotels proper can scarcely be said to exist in the city, though boarding-houses, restaurants, and above all private hospitality, go far to make up for the want of "licensed victuallers." Otherwise Tashkend does not differ widely from any other Russian town. The "Moskovs," like the British, earry their country with them. The amusements, mode of living, and soeial prejudices, are in Turkestan very much what they are further west. Only perbaps the lazy life and the surroundings have induced an even lower morality than in Moseow and St. Petersburg; and as the officers who elect to be sent to Central Asia are frequently "broken men," who for good reasons find it convenient, for a time at least, not to live too much in the publie gaze, the result can be imagined. Luxuries are also dear over the country, though necessaries are moderate in price. Beef is bad, but mutton is plentiful, good, and not very costly. Game is abundant, and though the Syr Darya contains many stargeon, fish is rare. Fruits can be bad almost for the asking, and garden vegetables are beginning to be raised in abundance. Grapes grow in profusion, and consequently wine of several kinds, but all equally strong and sour, ean be had. A very indifferent beer is brewed, but, of course, good European wines can be purchased, though at about four times the St. Petersburg prices. English ale and porterare luxuries even procurable in this Central Asiatic town; the latter is an especial favourite, as it ought to be, considering that the cost of the black liquid is ten shilling per bottle. There is, as in every Russian town, a "Cercle," or club-" as stupid and unclublike as all Russian clubs." There exists a fair library, a large chemical laboratory, and the famons "Turkestanski Viedomosti," or Turkestan Gaeette. This little sheet consists mainly of articles on the natural history, chronicles, and ethnology of the country. It contains 10 news of the outer world, and little even of events transpiring in Central Asia; while the Turki supplement for the enlightenment of the natives is filled with translations of the "Arabian Nights," and similarly instructive matter. Its circulation is merely nominal, but being kept up by the Government, the journal has a reputation and importanee in Europe out of all proportion to its character or merits. The exact number of inhalitants in the city has not been ascertained, but in the last official census it is put at 78,165 , and the whole population of Ferghana at 800,000 . This is not an over-estimate.


\section*{Zararshan.}

The capital of this distriet, Samarcand, with its six gated-walls, and its memories of Tammerlane-or limour Leng-who is buried within it, is a still more interesting town, though its interest centres all in its ruinous buildings and the tales which still cling to them (pp. 296, 997). From the middle of the market place the "melancholy domes" of the mosques rise above the flat-roofed houses, and in the background are high mountains, eovered during part of the year with snow, on which the rays of even an Asian winter sun is refleeted with dazzling brightness. But though interesting in every respect, Samarcand is a eity of the past. Here it was that Alexander the Great killed his friend Clytus in a fit of drunken passion; in this town, even in those days an important place, the Macedonian conqueror

sCENE ON THE STEPTES OF THE CASTIAN.
fixed his head-quarters when he was warring with the mountain tribes, and prepariug for his expedition against the Scythians on the other side of the Syr Darya. Traditions of the exploits of Alexander, or Iskender Dulkarnain (the two-horned), are still among the stock tales of the inhabitants. Many of the petty prinees of the Upper Oxus country claim their deseent from him. But their genealogies are extremely apocryphal; for though the generals he left in charge of his conquests founded the Graco-Bactrian dynasties, and introduced among other elements of Greek eulture the Macedonian calendar, little now remains to attest their existence save a number of coins and medals, which are often found on the Steppe, and in all the ruins about Samarcand, along the valley of the Zarafshan River. Russian society is in Samarcand smaller than in Tashkend: but less punctilious, but perhaps on that account not less pleasant. In Tashkend the Governor-General keeps up a petty state, and conducts himself with a reserve towards even the highest officials not
much less thum imperiul. At his receptions no one is permitted to sit down in his presence, and altogether the etiquette observed is ludierous, considering the place and the person,

In Samarcand society is freer. Inded, there are few Russiaus, and those not of high rank. Adventurers either directly from Russia, or who have wundered from Siberia, and after a strange life amongst the native Khamates have only appeared in the light of civilisation after they imagined that their former misdeeds had been forgotten or forgiven, sometimes encamp here in spite of the disceet vigilance of the Lientenant-Governor; and precise people will not hesitate to say that the morals of the later arrivals might be greatly improved without Samareand society rumning any claim of being stigmatised as prudish.*

\section*{Tue Sen of Aul.}

Into the Sea of Aral debouch the Amu Darya, and Syr Darya-in other worls, the Oxus and Jaxartes; and the amount of sand which they carry down and deposit amid the reed patches of its shallow waters has suggested tho namo of the lake, namely, the "Sea of Islets." From north to south the sea stretches for 20.5 miles, and its breadth from east to west is 145 . Hence, next to the Caspian, it is the largest body of water on the Asiatic Steppes. It is said to be 117 feet above the Caspian, which is again 81 below the Black Sea; but these data still requires verification. It was only in 1818 that ships were launched on its waters, but at present its flotilla is of some importance. The flat boats of the Kirghiz have, however, navigated it from the earliest periods; but so little have they disturbed its surface or explored its shores, that when the Russians first landed on the numerous islands which skirt its coast, they found them abounding with antelopes so fearless as to prove that they had hitherto been little acquainted with man. Wild storms often blow over its shallow waters, and this, combined with the almost total absence of harbours, renders navigation somewhat dangerous. The northern end is moreover usually frozen during winter, but the southern part is never shat to any extent. Sturgeon, silurus, carp, and a species of herring-in a worl the fishes of the Caspian-abound in it, its waters being only slightly brackish. Curiously enough, however, the lake has no visible outlet. Hence, at one time it was thought that it might communicate by some subterranean passage with the Caspian, 150 miles to the west. It has, however, been ascertained that the evaporation in this dry region is so great as to fully account for its equilibrium. It is now believed that its. waters are, like those of the Caspian, deereasing; and some geographers, among others Sir Henry Kawlinson, are firm in the conviction that the Aral is a lake of such comparatively recent origin as not to have existed here much before the middle ages. Others-among whom Sir Roderick Murchison was the leader-maintain that the Aral and the Caspian have existed all through the historical period, and that their outlines, as well as the courseof the Oxus and Jaxartes, were determined in distant geological periods. The Russian authorities have, however, a different opinion; for, as we have seen (p. 280), they are

\footnotetext{
* Tho most recent account of Samarcand, and much of the country under deseription, will be found in Mr. Marvin's cdition of Colond Grodekoff's "Ride from Samareand to Herat, through tho Uzbek States of" Afghan 'I'urkestan " (1880).
}
endeavouring to turn the former river in the channel nlong which it was supposed at one time to ruta to the Caspinu. If this shonld be sueeessful-at the cost of ruin to the Khivall oasis-vessels might then bo sent from the Caspian, or, indeed, from the town on the banks of the Volga far into the heart of Russia, on to the borders of Afghanistan, thus avoiding the terrible sands of the Kizyl and Kara Kums.*

The name of Ust Urt is applied to the bare plateau between the Aral and the Caspian. Sinee 1873 it bas been entirely Russian, the forts of Alexandrovsk, Krasnovodsk, and Chikishlar, the latter at the mouth of the Attrek River, being the most important point in the region. But Ashuradé in the south-east part of the Caspian is now a Russian station, and on the shores of that sea thero are several Russian landing-places.

\section*{The Casplan.}

The Caspian, though now eighty-four feet below the Black Sea, is believed to have been at one time on a level with it, and to have formed one of the series of sea basins of which the Mediterranean and the Black Sea are the remains. Its elevation is probably due to the continual evaporation which has been zoing on until its waters have shrunk to their present level. There is, however, a neek of land lying to the north of the Caucasus, so low that a rise of twenty-three feet in the waters of the Black Sea would cause them to overflow to the Caspian, and re-convert it into the great Asiatic Europo-Asiatic Mediterranean it probably once was. Nevertheless, a lake 740 miles long, 210 broad on an average, and embracing an area of 180,000 square miles, is sufficiently extensive without the imagination finding it neeessary to speculate on the still greater space it might have occupied in the past. Into it the Volga and the Ural pour the drainage of 613,000 square miles-probably more than the Don and Danube combined contribute to the Black Sea. If, however, the waters of the Kuma, the 'Terek, the Arax, the Kur, the Sefid, and the Attrek are taken into the calculation, it is quite evident, as Dr. Carpenter has pointed out, that the Caspian receives near!, if not quite as mueh, river water as the more important inland sea to the west and south of it. Yet, owing to the great evaporation io which it is subject, the surface is not rising, but rather falling; and the saltness of the water is curiously not so great as that of the Black Sea, or of the ocean generally. This, however, varies in different parts, and at different seasons of the year. In the shallow northern parte "e water is drinkable; in the middle and soutbern basins the salinity is about one-third that of the ordinary sea, while in the numerous lagoons off the shore, salt is manufactured for commercial purposes from the extremely concentrated brine which is found there. The temperature of the Caspian is also extremely variab?. In the summer the heat is often great, and in the winter the cold is proportionately severe. At this season the northern portion is more or less covered with ice, but as in the case of the Sea of Aral the waters of the southern reaches do not freeze. There are no preeeptible tides, but the sudden changes of the wind often cause strong currents. The presence of seals
bo found in bek States of

\footnotetext{
* The literature of this subject is extensivc. In Wood's "Shores of Lake Aral" (18;6), Gocje's "Das alte Bett des Oxus" (i8i5), and Roesler's "Die Aralseefrage" ( 1873 ), tho subjeet is discussed with great tulncess.
}
and herrings points to the lake having at one time communicated with the ocean, though Dr. Carpenter thinks that the communication was rather northwards with the Polar Sea, than westwards through the Black Sea and Meditermanem. The other fish are either salt water or marine. Sulmon abound, and the sturgeon fisheries are so valuable that nearly the whole world is supplied with isiuglass made out of their swimming bladlers. Caspian salt fish are also transmitted to distant parts, and their eapture and curing form the chief oechpution of the people of Astrakhan and other parts on the shores of the sea. Naptha and petroleum spriags abound in the neighbouring region. Those of Baku are very celebrated. Some of them are constuntly burning, and one known as the "burning tield" was in former limes the favourite place of pions resort to the Ghebers, or ancient fire-worshiphers of Persia.


THE MMHDN shah, on hovill squahe, isfahas.
The division between Europe and Asia is mainly an arbitrary one, which for our purpose need not be strietly observel. The Caspian, however, forms a sufficiently natural boundary, and accordingly we shall for the present leave it to touch briefly upon the ancient kingdom which abuts on its southern shores.

\section*{CHAPTER XV.}

\section*{Persia: The Countuy and its Products.}

We now enter a plateau five times the size of Great Britain, but not quite so populons as Ireland, a land which ranks among the most famous of the world, if we consider its past, but which, looking at it from its present point of view is, perbaps, one of
ocean, though the Polar Sen, are either salt le that nearly ders. Caspian the chief oceu-
Naptha and ery celebrated. was in former pers of Persia.
ur purpose need ural boundary, acient kingdom
the poorest and less important of the greater States of Asia. Nor is the cause of this reeadence difficult to divine. Persia is a country for which mature has done little, and for which man must therefore do much. It is an uphan averuging 2,000 feet aiove the tevel of the sea. Indeed, the only level portions are those skirting the Indian Ocean and the Persiun Gulf, and the southern shore of the Caspian ; but here, though the vergetation is often dense, the climate is most unhealthy and relaxing. Leaving "Gurmsir" -or the low country so called, and crossing the Elburz Range, whose voleano-Mount Damavandtowers to the height of 18,169 feet, and in the south over the parallel elaains of the Kohrud Mountains, and the yet partially explored and often snow-eapped ranges of Kurdistan, Farsistan, and Laristan, we come on Persia proper. This is known as, "Sarhadd," a iund of dry

the shaits palace at teheran.
phateaux, often sandy, and in nearly every case ste:ile, unless where irrigated by the few rivers which intersect the country. Once on a time the Persians attended to these irrigating works, and hence their soil was fertile and their kinglom prosperous. But nowadays an imbecile Government, whose ouly thought seems to be to squecze ont of the people all that cannot be expressed, does little, if anything, to develop the resources of the country; and consequently, unless a few more than ordinarily fertile villages are to be taken as exceptions, the Persia of Nassr-e-Din is for the most part a waste, streaked with green oases; monuments of the industry of a people from whom ages of oppression and misgovernment have not altogether eradicated some of the virtues which they possess in common with the other down-trodden nations of Asia. There are no railways in the country, few roads worthy of the name, and hence naturally a scarcity of wheeled carriages. Water communication has
also been ienied "Iran," as the comntry is calle: by the natives. The rivers on the outer elge of the platean are useful for irrigating purposes, but for little else, while Central Persia obtains the water whiel moistens its fields from the melting of the snows in the neighbouring mountains. This water is led off by canals, or underground channels. But as the supply is uncertain, should the snow or rain fail in the mountains, famines are as frequent in Persia as in India, the main difference being, that whilo the latter country can always rely with certainty on English aid in its troubles, the former cannot build any hope on the compassion or foresight of its governang classes. Perlaps the most painful proof of this was that while the Luropean residents during the last famine raised a large sum for the relief of the wretehed people, the Shah could with difficulty be persuaded to subscribe \(£ 300\) to the fund!

\section*{'Me Chmate.}

The younger Cyrus characterised Yersia as a country where the "people perish with cold at one extrenity, while they are suffocated with the heat at the otiner." This epigrammatic bit of meteorologieal deseription is in the main true. As a rule, the summers are exeessively hot, and the winters in many parts of the country as proportionately cold. The only region where the elimate is comparatively equable is along the shores of the Caspian. But the moderately warm summer and mild winter are neutralised by the unhealthiness of the region. Again in Dashtistan-or the region of the Persian Gulf-the heat of the summer is almost unbearable, but the winter and spring are most enjoyable. In the interior there are greater extremes, and the winds are not uaqualifiably welcome; fur while the northwest breezes bring ceslness, they also bear dronght in their train. The south-east gales are, on the contrary, wet, but the wetness is accompanied with warmth, which makes life at that seasc, an existence passed in a vapour bath. As a rule, the spring and autumn are the best months. Mr. Monnsey* deseribes the climate of Shiraz at that season as "delicious." The plain is then green, and the gardens filled with rose-trees and nightingales. The cherries are ripening, but the green almonds are the fruit in which the Persians, who are immoderately fond of such urulnolesome delicacies, indulge most. Indy Sheil is quite as entlusiastic about the spring. It beges about "Now Rooz," or the New Year Festival— that is, on the 22 nd of Mard, and lasts until the middle of May, when it becomes a great deal too hot fur the enjoyment of ordinary mortals. "After this journeys are made at night, for though the nights are still cold, the weather is getting hot during the day. The sudden approach and rapid advance of the spring are very striking. Before the snow is well off the ground the trees bue:t into bloom, and flowers shoot forth from the soil. At Now Rooz the snow was lying in pateles on the hills, and in the shaded valless, while the froit trees in the gardens were budding beautifully, and green plants and flowers sprung up on the plains on every side." As the summer progresses, the heat gets so intolerable in a city like Teheran, that every one who can afford it deserts the town for the country. The valleys of the Elburz Mountains are favourite spots for rustication. Here the Shah with all lis Court encamps, though the marquees, with their retinue of

\footnotetext{
*"Joarney through tho Caucasus and Persia" (1872).
}
the outer e Central ws in the tels. But famines the latter er cannot the most ine raised persuaded
rish with r." This. summers old. The Caspian. ess of the summer is rior there he northeast gales makes life d autuma season as htingales. ;, who are s quite as Festivalbecomes a are made ; the day. the snow the soil. d valleys, lants and heat gets - town for ustication. retinue of
servants, ministers, courti,rs, ond soldiers, to the number of three or four thousand, present less the appearance of a temporary camp than that of a huxurious series of eanvas and silken palaces. Ispahan, though hot, is not unhealthy, and the nights are comparatively cool; the climate of this part of the world possesses, therefore, an advantage over that of most parts of India, where the nights are often as warm and oppressive as the day. In July people sleep on the roofs of their houses, for the nights are usually clear and bright, the air dry, and the little dew that falls quite harmless.* By the beginning of Oetober the world of 'leherim has returned to town, and in December those who were forced to Heo the rity from heat have often to complain of cold. Then ice forms on the pools, though it melts before noon, when the sum is warm, and the temperature like that of an English spring day, but by evening again the thermometer approaches the freezing point. Winter is considered to end with February, when the snow which for a few weeks overlies the country melts away, and travelling becomes pleasant. The religion and arts of Persia have already been described. \(\dagger\) The poor people are, as a rule, very poor, and the rich, though in many cases of superior ellucation to the Turks and other Mohammedans, are, as a rule, sensual, avarieious, and utterly without scruples, and if possessed of any conscienee, are able to exereise a singular control over its better impulses. The soil is fertile if irrigated, and can sustain most temperate and sub-tropieal crops; and in the towns the arts of the craftsmen supply what few goods enable Persia still to carry on a little foreign trade. The wines of Shiraz are celebrated in Eastern poetry-but nowhere else in modern times-and the silk reared on the leaves of the mulberry trees is cutitled to the respect of even those outside the Iran border.

\section*{Mineral Resocrces.}

Turquoises are found in the Elburz mountains, but the mines are not developed, and with the exception of salt made from the brine of Lake Urmia, or collected from the inerustations of the plateau, there is little or no mineral wealth in the country. A contrary impression pre"ails, owing to the notoriety which the Shah's diamonds have obtained in Europe. Doubtless, the Ruler of Persia is possessed of more gems than any other potentate-the Czar of Russia, perhaps, excepted-but bis collection was not made within his own dominions. Mr. Eastwick, who was permitted to see the monarch's treasure-house, describes the room as containing jewels to the value of six or seven millions, laid ont on carpets at the far end of the room. "The first thing that struck me was the smallness of the door, and the steepness of the stairs. It was not a niee place to eseape from, if one had tried to make off with a crown or two. In such a show of gems as seemed to realise the wonder of Aladdin's lamp, the eye was too much dazzled, and the memory too confused for description. But I remember that at the baek of all was the Kaiauian crown, and on either side of it two Persian lambskin eaps adorned with aigrettes of diamonds. The crown itself was shaped like a flower-pot, with the small end open, and the other elosed. On the top of tho erown was an uncut ruby, apparently without flaw, as big as a hen's egg. In front of the crown were dresses covered with diamonds and pearls, trays with necklaces of

\footnotetext{
" Binning: "Two Years in Persia" Vol. II., p. 321. † "Races of Mankind" Vol. III., pp. 221-246.
}
pearls, rubies, and emeralds, and some hundreds of diamond, ruby, and turquoise rings. In front of these, again, were gauntlets and belts eovered with pearls and diamonds, and conspicuous among them the Kaianian belt, about a foot deep, weighing, perhaps, 18 lbs .,


THE OLD sOUTH GATE, TEHERAN.
and one complete mass of pearls, diamonds, emeralds, and rubies. One or two scabbards of swords are said to be worth a quarter of a million each." There are sapphires in this extraordinary room as big as marbles, rubies and pearls the size of nuts, and many emeralds, varying in dimensions from half an inch square to one and three-quarter inches long, and an inch broad. In a sword scabbard which is covered with diamonds there is not
a single stone smaller than the nail of a man's little finger. There are, lastly, among other treasures, an emerald as big as a walnut, covered with the names of kings who had possessed it, and turquoises so large and lovely as almost to justify the plandits which the Persian poets have bestowed on them. Turquoise work was, indeed, in the days of the Greeks, a speciality of the Persians. Armour of gold decorated with the gem was greatly admired, and to this day the lapidaries of Teheran and Ispahan pride themselves on their skill in inlaying the stone with designs and inseriptions. The finest stones come from Nishapour in Khorassan, where the deoosits have been worked from the remotest antiquity. The Persian Government make no explorations on their own aecount, but lease the mines to the speculators at an annual rent of 500 tomans.* In Chardin's \(\dagger\) day-that is, two centuries ago-these rough turquoises were piled up on the floor of the Treasury in Ispahan "like heaps of grain," and the polished gems filled "innumerable leather bags, weighing 45 to 50 lbs . each." The explanation of this collection was that the Shal in those times, as in ours, took all the best stones. Great quantities are also taken by Persian and Tartar merehants to the fair of Nishni-Novgorod in Russia. Emeralds are also highly valued by the Persians, and among the Shah's pearls there is reputed to be one worth \(t 60,000\). Some of the stones are used as talismans. On Nassr-e-Din's first visit to Europe, he earried with him a five-pointed star, which is firmly believed to have the power of forcing conspirators to confess their treason, and a cube of amber which is considered eapable of rendering the wearer invulnerable. Another of the amulets cherished by the enlightened monarch of Persia is a little casket of gold, studded with emeralds, whieh, like "fern seed," permits the wearer to "walk invisible ;" but, unhappily, its virtnes have not had a proper field for their display among the oceupants of the Persian throne, for it refuses to exereise them on behalf of any save a celibate. Finally, amid a multitude of similar costly rublish used as "fetishes," are a seimitar in whieh a diamond is set, and a "magic dagger." These weapons render the wielder invineible. But, here a \(n\), the genii who guide them have taken eare to surround tools so valuable with the comje satiner drawback-that the person using the dagger will die by it. Accordingly, it is kept in a saminl-wood casket to grarl against any such contingeney, so that in the end it is very harmbess agaiust eithe, friend or foe. \(\ddagger\)

\section*{The Phodrcts, etc.}

To return to the soil. The wheat of Persia is as fine as could be desired; tine only trouble is, thit there is too little of it; and among the other crops are cotton, rice, and tobaceo. The Persian horse is only surpassed by that of Arabia, and the fine fabries woven from the flecees of the sheep and goats, which graze on the mountain slopes, bear a high naty thronghout the East; while among animals less valuable may be mentioned the lion and leopard, the antelope, wolves, jackasses, tigers, and boars, which the Shab and his courtiers \(\rightarrow\) or at all events the Shah-take such delight in hunting in the forests of Elburz near

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"In a "keran" there are 1,000 "dinars," or 20 "shahis," equal to \(11 \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{~d}\). In a "toman" there are 10 kerans, or 0s. \(3 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~d}\).
†"Harris's Collection of Voyages and Travels," Vol. II.
\(\ddagger\) Binning: "Two Years in Persia" Vol, II., p. 230; Pigott: "Persia, Ancient and Modern" p. 299.
}
the Caspian. The fish eaught in the rivers flowing into the Caspian form a valuable source of revenue to the people living on their banks; and though less known than the carpets, silks, shawls, and arms of the eity craftsmen, the sturgeon sent to Russia yield a scarcely less substantial return. The interior trade is carried on mainly by caravans, which meet and diverge from certain points. For instance, a Kiffila or caravan emporium is Tabriz (p. 312), where the traders of Northern Iudia, Bokhara, Cabul, Baloochistan, and Sumarcand meet those of Persia to barter or sell their wares, or to obtain the European cotton eloth which arrives here by way of Constantinople and Trebizond. Through Anzati, on the Caspian the people of Resht and Teheran draw their supplies; but the ehief ports of the kingdom are Bushire and Bunder Abbas, on the Gulf of Persia, where the trade is almost entirely in the hands of the British and Arabs.

\section*{CHAPTER XVI.}

\section*{Persta: The Gulf and its Trade: Revenue, etc.}

Businre is a Europeanised form of Abri Sheyhr, "Father of Cities." Mr. Geary describes the town as built on a long peninsula of said, which projects at right angles to the coast line, and so flat that the squure tower-like houses of grey sandstone appear to rise out of the water like a Persian Venice. The place is very hot. Hence, the little wind-towers, fifteen or twenty feet high, erected on the summit of all the better-class houses in order to eatch every breath of wind that blows, and send it down flues into the rooms below, enable the inmates to exist during the summer beats. On the land side the eity is "protected" by a ruinous wall, in which the breeches made by the British artillery, when they bombarded it during the Persian war, have never been repaired. On the sea front there is no wall, but at intervals a few dilapidated towers command the strand. The harbour, formed by two banks of sand, somewhat proteet from the firy of the waves, which during the wild "gulf-squalls" rise so fiercely; but large vessels have to anchor in the roads without, greatly to the profit of the Bushire boatmen, who during rough weather dictate their own terms to the ship-captains. Mr. Geary describes the town at the date of his visit-that is, two years ago-as one of the largest along the shores of the Persian Gulf; but in its narrow, tortuous, and altogether unpaved and undrained streets, it bears a family resemblance to the others in the same region. The endless droves of mules have worn their way into deep channels which run down the centre, leaving pedestrians to piek their way along the higher grounds. As the place has never been swept since it was built, except by the plague, filth and evil smells are over all. The plague periodically visits it, and the town is dotted with graveyards so filled with bodies, that the wonder is the place is habitable. Yet mules and donkeys laden with grain give Bushire an air of business; and the endless knots of beggars, who whine pertinaciously at every
street corner, prove that the Bushirees have something to give away, if at the same time they luve a good many people among whom to distribute it. The plaee sends grain to India, and might be very prosperous were there a wagon road between the port and Shiraz. But there is only a donkey or mule path; and though the European merchants have often offered to construct one, they have never been permitted, since the Persian officials learn that there is to be no "backsheesh" for them to be got out of the enterprise. Indeed, every effort at improvement is barred by this craving for "backsheesh," an Oriental word whiel may be familiarly translated "palm oil." The unwritten rule through " all the gorgeous East" is, no bribe, no public work, a state of matters which also prevails in Turkey, though not to such a burrefaced extent as in Persia. Hence, by a general consensus of opinion, the Sultan's side of the boundary shows greater prosperity than the Shah's, and every year many of the subjects of the latter are, in spite of the prejudice against their sect of Mohammedanism, emigrating aeross the frontier. Bunder Abbas, or Gambroon, the only other important Persian port in the Gullf, is an open roadstead. The undulating shore, diversified with patches of green and palm trees, and backed fifteen miles away by high ghauts, rising to 8,000 feet, and still further in the interior by snow-capped peaks, give the place a pleasant appearance when viewed from the sea. But the town itself is of small dimensions, filthy beyond Persian precedent, falling into hopeless decay, and so unhealthy that no Europeans dare live in it permanently. The natives, however, look robust enough. They subsist chiefly on the fish which swarm in the Gulf, and are to a great extent, but not nearly to the amount they might be, exported to the led Sen, Mauritius, and elsewhere. The shoals of sardines are deseribed as being something prodigious.

In sight of Bunder Abbas is the Island of Ormuz, which in early days under the Arabs, and then under the Portuguese, was the centre of the Gulf trade. But in 1663 it was captured by the troops of Shah Abbas the Great, aided by some English vessels. Since that day the place has been desolate. Its fine harbour is shipless, and the coummeree which was driven off by the sack of the city has never returned either to it or to Bunder Abbas. The great reservoirs construeted by the Portuguese to hold the water supply, however, still remain intact; but the surfaee of the island-nearly twelve miles in cir-cumference-is entirely denuded of soil and of vegetation. Salt and sulphur pateh this desert, and form almost the only articles which the few Arab and Persian inhabitants export to India, as opportunity offers. The tottering lighthouse and the ruined fort stand as witnesses to the former substantiality of the place, and the numerous mounds and ruins whieh cover the vicinity attest the populousness of the city in early times. These might, if properly explored, yield many interesting remains. The crystalline incrustations of salt, which in places cover the surface of the hills, give them the appearance of ising overlaid by glaciers.*

Linga is a busy town on the Persian shore, but it is ruled by an Arab Sheik tribntary to the Shah, and mainly peopled by Arab refugees from the other side of the Gulf. Otherwise, the place is as evil-smelling as any other part of urban Persia, and altogether as tumble-down. Justice is administered, as it is along the shores of the Gulf, in
*Whitelock: Bombay Geographical Society's Journal, Vol. I., p. 113: Grattan Geary: "Through Asiatic Turkey," Vol. I., p. 35.
a terribly stern fashion. Robbers are common, but when canght they may consider themselves happy if they are only walled up alive, for not unfrequently they are crucified with the addition of terrible tortures, only possible for an Oriental brain to devise.

Mr. Geary describes the trade of the Gulf—both local and foreign—as steadily progressing, and settled order becoming the rule. The British India Company's steamers ply along the whole extent of the Gulf-600 miles long to from 120 to 230 miles broad-up and down weekly, in addition to numerous other steamers and sailing vessels. In the winter the cold is often piercing, but during the summer months the heat excceds everything known in any other sea. British gunboats keep order in the Gulf, under the direction of our political agent at Bushire. Hence the organised piracy which until within the last fifteen years prevailed is a something of the past. British influence is likely to increase now that we have


THE CITY GATE, TABRIZ.
assumed a protectorate over the Asiatic dominions of the Sultan. Yet hitherto, though British money has made the Gulf safe, the Arab Sheiks and the Shah have not been asked to contribute to the cost of their protection. This fact the Turks, when annexing strip after strip of the Gulf littoral from the Arabs, did not fail to adduce as a proof that we had no right to object to their absorption of the territories of independent tribes. The Persians look upon the British Residency at Bushire with extreme jealousy. At first they refused to allow the Resident to build a house, and even after the necessary permission was granted they stipulated that the dwelling should not be larger than the tent he at first occupied! Well might Colonel-now Sir Lewis-Pelly write in an official communication to the Bombay Government that "the Persians have some good qualities, but they are jealous and small-minded beyond any people \(I\) ever came across in the course of twenty-two years' travel." Nevertheless, in spite of their dislike, the Resident still exercises judicial and political dictatorship over every place where the formal rule of the
nemselves with the gressing, along the n weekly, \(d\) is often any other agent at prevailed we have
to, though e not been n annexing as a proof ndependent ne jealousy. e necessary or than the n an official od qualities, ross in the esident still cule of the

Persian, Turkish, or Arab cannot extend. But owing to his position on foreign soil his jurisliction is naturally exercised under considerable restraints and difficulties. Indeed, as the Persian Gulf may be said to be virtually British waters, and will become of paramount importance to India, should a railway ever unite it with the Mediterranean through the Euphrates Valley, a British settlement on its shores is every year becoming more and more a neeessity, and has been advocated by Sir Lewis Pelly and other Residents at Bushire. Some locality near Cape Mussendom would meet this requirement, and aet favourably not only on the Gulf trade generally, but exercise a healthful influence on Arabia and Western Mekran, while from its frontier it would speedily attract the merchants who were scattered on the destruction of Ormuz. The value of the Gulf trade has been estimated at


VIEW of shtraz.
\(£ 8,000,000\). But even allowing that this is too high, it is ineontestable that since the opening of the Suez Canal the commerce has prodigiously inereased. Goods once brought solely by way of the old cavaran route from the Mediterranean ports via Damaseus and Aleppo to Bagdad, Bussorah, and Western and Nerthern Persia, now travel by the Red Sea route. China, Java, Bombay, and Calcutta send their contingent; and even the apathetic Persians, tempted by the new sources of wealth opened out, despatch opium to China, and grain and pilgrims to Jeddah, in steamers under their own flag. From Meshed and Herat earavans reach the shores of the Gulf, while Seyd and Bunder Abbas are partly kept alive ky landward commerce from other parts of Asia, and down the Tigris and Euphrates come goods not only for remote parts, but for transshipment for "the country trade." These countries, however, only use the Gulf as a highway. Its waters, nevertheless, supply materials for trade in the shape of fish and pearls, and on its shores grow dates and other produce, the aggregate value of which is considerable.

\section*{Tile Peaile Fisieries.}

The Pearl Fisheries have been long celebrated. Off Babrein, an islaud containing 50,000 people ruled by an independent Arab Sheik, there is so great a trade in these coveted ornaments that not unfrequently a single Arab will send several thousand rupees' worth of the shells alone to London; and as the banks extend along nearly the wholo of the Arabian coast from Kowait to Ras el Keimal, and are also found in one or two places, though of inferior quulity, on the Persian coast, the amount of pearls obtained must be great. The Coast Arabs regard the banks as their special property, and would drive away as a poacher any one from the interior caught attempting to share the marine treasures. The diving begins in June, and lasts until September. During the height of the season about 2,000 boats will be engaged in the business on the Bahrein banks alone, but along the shores of the entire Gulf not less than four or five thonsand boats, each manned by from ten to thirty-two men, are engaged, these labourers being paid by a share in the venture. Still, pearlfishing is a poor trade-to all save the pearl merchants. The latter are mostly natives of India, and usurers of a more than ordinarily objectionable type. The divers are almost invariably in their debt, and hence are obliged to sell their pearls to their creditors at prices often greatly below their value, and to buy what they require from them at a cost proportionately above the market rates. The result is, that these Oriental Shylocks manage, what with the interest they charge on money advanced, and on the advantages they take in buying and selling to so uneonseionably fleece their serfs, that for a diver in an ordinary season to be in want of food is not an uncommon occurrence. When an Arab wishes to embark in the pearl-diving business, he seeks out one of these Indian usurers, and borrows money from him at cent. per cent. interest, and probably a boat at an equally extortionate rate of hire. If he is successful he may possibly be enabled to get out of his creditor's clutches. But if the season is an ordinary one, or still worse, if it proves a bad one for him, his fate is, as Mr. Geary justly remarks, somewhat like that of the Indian ryot when his crops fail-whe is forced to get money to carry him over to the next season at whatever terms are demanded. The divers, during the hottest portion of the season, will sometimes descend a dozen times a day. But earlier in the year, when the sea is still compuratively cold, three or four plunges are about as much as they can tolerate in the twenty-four hours. Their mode of operations is very simple. The diver, after his nostrils and ears have been plugged up, and a weight attached to his feet, is dropped over the oysters whieh have been sighted through the clear water. These he detaches, and placing them in a sack round his waist, is again drawn up by the cord attacbed to him. A minute or a minute and a half is about the maximum time which the divers can remain under the sea. Even then the work is most injurious to their health. Nearly all of them are reduced in body, and suffer greatly from the ophthalmia which is so common among the inhabitants of the Gulf shores, and the risks they run from sharks and sawfishes render the occupation one not conducive to longevity. Quarrels among the pearl-divers are frequent, but the presence of the British gunboats on the banks during the fishing season enables the
sheiks to keep order, and above nll-what they consider the final purpose of orderto levy their prol'taxes in peace. In India the yellowish-lued pearls are most sought after: in the Bagdad market the white ones are most valued, and this variety is also best appreciated in Europe; but Persia absorbs a great number of seed pearls for purposes of embroidery and for medicine, the pearl being throughout the last celebrated as a tonie. Altogether Mr. Geary, from whom we have obtained the foregoing particulars, ealeulates the Gulf pearl fisheries muy be worth \(£: 00,000\) per annum, more or less; but there is no means of arriving at anything save an approximate estimate.

\section*{The Governaent and the Popllation.*}

To return to Persia proper. The snows which cover the Persian plateau atone in most degree for the absence of the monsoon. The winds blowing over in the winter months revive the dried-up denizens of the Gulf towns, and at times make even Europeans shiver. Persia and the Gulf have this advantage over India, that instead of only two seasons, they have four, and are situated "within the zone of winter rains, which extends as far as Central Europe."

Politically, Persia is divided into four great provinces, each province in its turn being subdivided into six seetions. \(\dagger\) The four great politieal divisions are : Khorassan, or the east region; Azerbaijan, the western, or, to use the poetical Persian imagery, "the province of the rising and the setting sun;" Irak, the central region lying between these two; and Fars, the most southern part of the country. The low-lying country between the edge of the Persian plateau and the Gulf, though under the rule of the Shah, is in the East scareely cousidered a part of Persia. It is to the Orientals simply "Arabistan," or the country of the Arabs. But even without it the Shah rules over 600,000 square miles, or a sixth more than the Sultan of Turkey does in Asia. The population of the country is not known with anything like accuracy, for it is not to the interest of the provincial officials to send up returns which might inconveniently act as a check upon their peculations. A large population would inevitably result in the Teheran officials insisting on a large revenue. Accordingly, while the governors take care that every one is taxed to the uttermost farthing, they report only a moderate population as taxable, and pocket the difference. Hence Major St. John considers that insteal of the population of Persia being only \(4,000,000\), it is nearer \(10,000,000\). The governors are permittel to retain their posts longer if found eapable men-that is, men who send up a good revenue to the trensury, and from whose provinces no rumours of revolts or of flagrant abuses reach the capital. Members of the royal family

\footnotetext{
"Seo also "Races of Mankincl," Vol. III., p. 221.
\(\dagger\) In this statement I have followed tho best nuthorities. In somo works, however, there are thirteen provinces mentioned; in others twonty; in a third estimato twenty-four. The diserepancies arise owing to the interpretation into English of the Persian word signifying "Province," and the cetimation of the sive of a tract of country entitled to that designation. In taking the view I have done, my opinion is strengthened by the authority of a distinguished European officer in tho service of the Shah, who has been good enough to supply mo with much information, and to read over part of these notes, compled from various official and other decuments.
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also, unlike those of Turkey, are frequently nppointed to offee. But though the train. ing of the princes for the place they may be one day ealled upon to occupy results in the Persian throne obtaining better occupants than that of Turkey, where the jealousy of the Sultan forees his near relations to a life of sensual idleness, it does not act so favourably on the country. These high-born governors are practieally omnipotent. They do as seems good in their own eyes; and not being a whit less corrupt than their humbler colleagues, a bribe is always suffieient indueement for one of them, if incliued,

tower jo the nite of the ancient haghes, pensil (hfideven to me the tomb of a mogel king).
to minister to private vengeanee, from which there is no appeal. It would be a misuse of terms to say that the country is well governed: it is not. The Shah is an absolute ruler, and the vast number of his subjects are Mohammedan; but the Armenians, Nestorian Christians, Jews, and Guebres, or followers of the ancient sun-worship of the Persians, now chiefly cherished by the Indian Parsees, may in all amount to 75,000 . But the Persians are a patient race, and, knowing nothing better, get along reasonably well between extortions and famines. But the Christians have no rights, and the Jews are treated in the Empire of the Shah infinitely wo:ss than they are in probably
misuse of absolute rmenians, \(p\) of the 000. But ably well the Jews prolably
any other country in the world, Moroceo not excepted. It is, however, only just to say that, with the exception of China, no country in Asia are so large a proportion of the people possessed of the elements of education.

The Trade.
The revenue is estimated at something like \(\mathrm{EP}, 000,000\), and the expenditure at something less, and the Government has no publie debt. But in a comutry like Persia the


THE TOMH OF HAYAZID-BASTAM AT CHABOLT-BASTAM.
revenue which reaches the treasury bears an insiguificant ratio to that which is foreed out of the people, but never goes any further than the officials by whom it is personally collected. The external trade of the country is valued at \(£ 4,000,000\) sterling, but the imports far execed the exports. The trade with Great Britain is inereasing, but it is still insignificant, and as Russia is using every effort to divert much of it in her direction, without corresponding efforts being made on the part of the British merchants, the future does not promise brightly. Persia looks with jealousy on our position in the Gulf, and this
feeling our rivals know well how to take ndvantage of. In 1878 Persia sent \(\ell 173,359\) worth of goods to Great Britain, and imported \(\mathbb{E 1 4} \mathbf{4}, 191\) worth of British proluce. But it is almost needless to say only a trilling proportion of the Persian produets-chietly opium-was sent direct to us.

\section*{Pebshay Towns.}

Some of these have already been described, and, with a few alterations to suit local differences, might fuirly stand as the type of the others which have not been noticed. Tabriz, Kasvin, Ispalan, and Shiraz have all at different times had the honour of being the Sluah's capital; und at present Teheran, on the broad plain near the south-west base of Mount Damavand, is the seat of government, and the principal place of residence of tho Court. Teheran, when first heard of in the twelfth century, was a miserable place. The inhabitants lived in honses underground, and indeed it was not until the fifteenth century that they emerged from their subterrancan dwellings. But by 1618 Chardin and other European travellers describe it as a large eity. At present it does not impress the visitor, and at a distance is deeidedly disappointing. Its black mud walls are exactly of the colour of the ground, so that seen at a distance it looks like a "con. fused dust-enshrouded mass," and altogether very unlike the Oriental capital of the Enstern tale. Inside, the appearance of things is not much more inviting. The absence of slady trecs make the ill-paved narrow streets very hot, and the want of any approach to a decent hotel does not mollify the traveller disappointed with his first view of the chief city of Persia. Ispahan is not much more inviting, though, as we have seen (p. 307), the climate is more agrecable. Shiraz (p. 313) is the "city of colleges"-of which there are about ten -but the education supplied is of a very elementary character. It is now chiefly visited by those who are curious to examine the magnificent ruins of Persepolis-the ancient captal, and at one time "the glory of the East," and the pride of Darius, Xerxes, and Artaxerxes, until it was destroyed by Alexander the Great. Tauris, with its 100,000 people-as many as Teheran; Meshed, "the Holy," with 60,000; Yezd, with 40,000 ; and Hamadan, Kermanslah, Kerman, Dizful, Kazvin, Resht, Astrabad, Kashan, Burudjird, and Kum—all with between twenty and thirty thousand people-are other towns of importance. It is needless describing them. Filthy thoroughfares, mud walls, cometimes groves of trees, bad water and little of it, bare walls of houses facing the streets; the windows generally without glass, or the balconies looking into the courtyards; and great caravanserais built by speculators or "pious founders" for the accommodation of travellers, are about the most salient features of urban Persia. But over all is written ruin and desolation. New buildings stand tawdry and out of pluce beside old ones that only echo the past, while the dirt, the disorder, and the discomfort which seem innate to the East prevail everywhere through the land of Iran (pp. 304, 305, 308, 312, 313).

\section*{Proaress of Persia.}

The Persian peasantry are, as a rule, contented and even happy. They are oppressed by their local rulers, but ages of tyranny have accustomed them to regard the
tix-gatherer's exaction as a something to which all mankind are sulject, and knowing nothing better they are not miserable at the thought of what they must bear. They are even sometimes convinced that after all "Iran" is the favoured of heaven. In illustration of this Sir John Malcolm tells an anecdote of an Arab-Persian woman who had accompanied an English family to Britain, and wus being questioned by her relatives in Mekran as to the country and people the had visited. Were they happy? Were they rich? Was the country a gool one? The country, the "ayah" replied, was a good one. It was like a garden; the people, sho had heard, were happy; she knew they were wise, and they seemed to be rich. At this her friends looked sull. Their conntry was not like a garden, the inhabitants were not wise, and they felt that they might be richer without being any less happy, and they were turning nway, for the first time in their lives, really discontented with their condition, when the woman remarked that in "Fringhistan" there was one thing the peoplo wanted. They lad no date trees; she had not seen one in the whole country, and for more than a year she had looked for nothing else. Then the Arabs were happy onee more, for they were certain that a country without dates must be miserable indecd.

Again, the Persians, when they leave home, either on business or pleasure-pleasure being the rarest of the motives which induce them to leave their own country-take eare, when they return, to run down the good points of the kingdoms they have visited, so as to flatter the national vanity, and at the same time preserve their own reputation for truthfulness. They are, moreover, so prejudieed-and this criticism applies to Orientals generally-that they fail to see merit in anything which is different from what they have been accustomed to, and hence generally spend their time abroal in picking out the bad and not the good points of the nations they visit. Finally, the Persians, when they see their country visited by travellers, and foreigners readily residing. in it either for purposes of trude or for the sake of official employment, naturally come to the conclusion that if the homes of these people were all they declare them: to be, they would searcely be so anxious to leave them. In Sir John Malcolm's day, few Persians, even of the highest rank, understood any language save their own and Arabic, and though all classes read, the looks to which they lad access contained little information about any part of the world savo Asia. Even then, the knowledge imparted was vague, erroneous, or generally unsatisfactory. Europe they only knew by name, and by confused accounts of its nations and comparative greatness. At a much later date, Jehangir Mirza, a grandson of Fetteh Ali Shah, thought the English, French, and Russian were all under one king, and was astonished to find that Great Britain was governed by a female sovereign. Even yet, it is difficult to make them understand many of the European inventions which have of late years been introduced into their country. In particular the telegraph, of which there are nearly 3,000 miles in operation, is as puzzling to them as it bas ever been to the unscientific in Europe. At first they considered that the wires were hollow, and that the messnges were blown through them. "Imagine a dog whose tail is here in Teheran, and his mazzle in London; tread on his tail here, and he will bark there." Even after this explanation by the telegraph officer, the local governor, to whom it was vouchsafed, had some difficulty in understanding the rationale of the
instrument by which the barking was done. Perhaps, after all, they are not much more obtuse than many people in Europe. A European princess, still living, intelligently inquired, after the famous Ersted had explainer to her the working of the electric telegraph-" how parcels were conveyed along it?" In many an Eicglish country town or retired neighbourhood there is as much dull, self-satisfied conceit and stupidity as in any quarter of Persia. The inflated notion of their own importance, which so often possess even otherwise "well educated" people in these islands, is less excusable than in the case of the Persians, for in Britain no one need remain ignorant who can read, while in Persia books are few, and newspapers and other sources of information practically non-existant. But it may be questioned whether in their ignorance there is not a certain degree of bliss? In the East the nations, habits, and prejudices of the people compel reform to cone from above-not, as in the case of European nations, to rise to the surface from below. In Europe even the most despotie of Govarnments recognise the principle in a greater or less degree of power proeeeding from the governed, and of the rolers acquieseing thus far in the wishes of the ruled. Such an idea is strange to the East; the oecupants of the throne and places of trust would sonsidor such an assertion in the light of a wild paradox; even their subjects would be puzzled to account for sueh a theory having in it any element of good. It would only tempt certain headstrong people to rise in rebellion, and rebellion has a happy ending when it does not lead further than the bastinado, or the gallows. Yet Persia, though fallen frem the condition it once enjoyed, is really progressing-it may be slowly, awkwardly, and in a fashion which often savours of the passive. The force of European stimulus is pushing it up behind; there is no active resistance if the way be sufficiently smoothed by "backsheesh," but there is no actual aid to it, and most frequently, if the vis e tergo is removed, the manine rolls back to the rut out of which it lad been started. The future of Persia it is not easy to forceaste. Should she ever attain anything of her former greatness, her power for evil or good will be great in Central Asia. On the contrary; should sh: gradually sink into insignificance, the prospect whieh lies before us is not one pleasant to contemplate. The prey on this side of the ambition of one power, or that of ihe fears and neeessities of another, Iran will be torn by the spoiler, or be the scene of war between nations whose intorests it is to rer ain at peace.

We now leave Mohammedan Persia with its Shiite fanaties, for Mohammedan Turkey with. its Sunnee sectarians. The one country is solely confined to Asia, the other has spread itself over important parts of Europe and Asia, and has caused its flag to be recognised in Northern Africa also. With its consideration we can therefore suitably begin the brief sketeh in Africa and Europe with which we conclude our survey of the vorld.

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[^0]:    * Dall: "On the Remains of Prehistorie Mata in Caves of the Catherina Arehipelago aud the Aleutian Inlands." ("Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge," 1878.)

[^1]:    *The word "Kamtchatka" is derived from "Kontchatj," to terminute.

[^2]:    * Kennan: "Tent Life in Siberia," p. 38.

[^3]:    * Kamtchatka never changes much. Aecordingly, the chicf literaturo on it, though old, is yet quite seasonable. The works of Krashenimikor havo been translated into English, and those of Cochrane, Cottrell, Dobell, Haberwham, Tronson, Collins, Kittlita, Steller, and Frman, in addition to the more recent narratives of Kemnan and Bush, almost exhaust the original sources of information on this part of Fastern Siberia, unless we aecept the numerous official-political, geographical, and scientific-reports presented to the St. Petersbure authorities from time to time; but these are, for the most part, in the Russian language.
    + Also spelled "Sakalin," and "Saghalien." The native name is said to be "Ktato," or "Taraki," under tho latter of which designations the Russians are now beginning to deseribe it.

[^4]:    * Collins: "Exploration of the Amoor River" (18.8) ; Ravenstcin: "Russinns on tho Amour" (1861): Ahrenck: "Reisen und Forschungen im Amurland" (1858-67): Atkinson: "Travels in the Region of the Amoor" (1868); lists of works in Chavanne, Karpf and Le Mounier: "Die Literatur uiber l'olar- Regionen" (1898) relating to the neighbouring comutry.

[^5]:    * Among these aro some of the striktest sectaries of the "Starovertsi," or Old Belicvers, who have also taken reftre in the wildest parts of Siberia. (Morgan, in Prejevalsky's "From Kulja Across the Tian Shan to Lob-Nor" ( 1879 , p. 202 ; nd Wallace's "Russia," Vol. 1., p. 14.)

[^6]:    * Wallace's "Russia," Vol. I., p. 3\%̃.

[^7]:    * Eden: "Frozen Asia" (1879), pp. 24-249.

[^8]:    * "Cassell's F'amily Magazine," 1879, 1. 434.

[^9]:    * Capital pmishment has ceased in hussia, exerpt for the mime of high treason.
    $\dagger$ There jo also a penal settlement in the Department of Arelangel, in Europe.

[^10]:     suricty, Vol, XXIL., p. 101.

[^11]:    * Erman: "Travels in Niberia" (1848) ; Atkinson: "(biental and Wistern Nileria" (1838) : Hill: "Travels in Siberia" (1854); Cottrell: "Recollctions of siberia" (ts12); Middendorff: "siberische Rise" (1860): Hetlde: "Reisen im siaden von Ost-Sibrien" (1583); Baron R [osen]: "Russian Consparators in sib ria" (1872) ; "Finsch: "Relse mach West-Siberien im Jahe, 1876" (1879), se. \&e.

[^12]:    * "Races of Mankind," Yol. IV'., pp. 158-21\%,
    $\dagger$ Other estimates mako the arra as low as $\mathrm{I}, 800,000$ square miles.
    $\ddagger$ Williamson: "Journers in North China,", Vol. I., p. 3 .

[^13]:    * Proceedings of the Roynl Gcongraphical Society (1879), p. $\mathbf{1 9}$.

[^14]:    * "China" (1878), Vol. II., p. 326. In "Races of Mankind," Vol. I., pp. 277-278, an almost identien! mode of capturing widd fowl is df seribed as being practised ly the Indians living on the shores of a great shallow lake off the Gulf of Jaracaibo, in Venczuela.

[^15]:    *Thomson: "The Land and the People of China" (1876), p. 33.
    $\dagger 1,000$ eash aro equal to about 6s. sterling. Tho Chineso currency is, however, in a most ehaotic condition (Williamson: "China," Vol. I., pp. 58-6:', and Williams: "Middlo Kingdom," Vol. I., p. 234).

[^16]:    * Anderson: "Mimblalay to Momien" (1876); Richthofen: "China: Ergebnisse cigener Reisen und darauf gegriin leter Studien" (1877-8), \&c.

[^17]:    " Behm and Wagner: "Dic Bevölkerung der Frde," 187t-78.
    $\dagger$ Kwang Chang Ling.

[^18]:    - Cook: "China" (1858).

[^19]:    * In some works its composition is stated to be nine Mantchus and seven Chinese, but in the latest official lists, where tho names of the members of the "Neko" are given, the numbers are as I have adopted them.

[^20]:    * A Huikwan, or Custom House, tuël is about 6s.
    † Williams: "The Middle Kingdom" (1848); Guotzlaff: "China Opened" (1838); Doolittlo: "Social Lifo of the Chineso" (1865) ; Pumpelly: "Gcological Researches in Northern China " (1866) ; Edkins: "Religion in China" (187i): Medhurst: "Tho Foreigner in Far Cathay;" Thomson: "Straits of Malneen" (1875); "Illustrations of China and its Prople;" Eden: "China" (1876); Douglas and Yule in the Encyclopedia Britamica (1879), \&c.

[^21]:    *Proceedings of the Royal Giographical Socicty, 1879, pp. 489-509. Sco also Cooper: "Travels of a

    - Comer of Commerco" (1870), and tho various official reports of Bluo Books. It is impossiblo in this place
    "Proccedings of the Royal Giographical Socicty, 1879, pp. 489-509. Sco also Cooper: "Travels of a
    Pioneer of Commerco" (1870), and tho various official reports of Bluo Books. It is impossiblo in this place to give referenees to even a fraction of tho recent works on China, for a bibliggraphy of tho kind would occupy a volumo, so extensivo has been the literary aetivity of Europeans and Americans who have visited the "Middle Kingdom."

[^22]:    *The "Osaka Nippon," quoted in the Tokio Times, November 1st, 1879.
    $\dagger$ The root of an araleaceous plant (Pamax ginseng) in great demmen in China as a medicino in ferers. Its primer name is "Jin-san."

[^23]:    *Tokio Times, November 1st, 1879 ; see also "Meprorts of Kabhassy and Xegation" for 1879.

[^24]:    * Mcdhurst: " A Translation of a Comprative Vocabulary of Chincse, Corean, and Japanese" (1830).

[^25]:    $\dagger$ Williamson: "Journers in North China," Vol. H., p. 303. Corea is known to the natives as Chosien (T:o-sjün); to the Chineso as Kaoli, and to tho Jajanese as Korai, hence our namo of Corea, It is one of the least known countries in tho world, our information regarding it being exfecmely scanty. The chief soureo fur our data is M. Dallet's "L'Eglise de la Corée" (I874); see also Oppert: "A Forbidden Land" (! ":.

[^26]:    *Fleming: "Travely on Horseback in Mantchu Tartary" (1863); Gabelentz: "Eléméns de la Gramuaire Haudehoue" (1833).

[^27]:    * Prejecalsky: "Travels in Mongolin," translated by E. Delmar Morgan (18i6), ete.
    t It is tho Turki for "great," anll, like the term "Shrmo," sometimes used as a synonym of "Goli," is employed by the Chinese ns a general term for any sazdy desert.

[^28]:    *Se almo Pevtsofs "Expedition in North Western Mongolia," in Froceedings of the Noyal Gcographical Sooriety (1879), p. 701 .

[^29]:    - Jourwal of the Royal Gengraphical Society, Vol. XL. (1800), p. 33.
    + Sir Douglas Forsyth did not consider it had over a third of that number.
    $\ddagger$ Shaw: "Visits to High Tartary, Yarkand, and Kashgar" (1871).

[^30]:    * Boulgre: "Life of Yakool, Beg," p. 12: Bellow: "Kashnir and Kitshgar" (187;): IIenderson: "Lahore to Yarkanl" (1876): Gorton: "Itoof of the World" (18-3); "Lieport of a Mission to Varkand and Kashgar" (1870), de. This volume contains contributions regaring the result of Sir Douglas Porsyth's Emlassy, by the officers emgaged in it. Cipit. Trotter, R.E., luis also given an alstract of the geographionl observations of the mission in the Journal of th Royal Giographical Soricty, Vol. XLJㄴII. (1878), pp. 173-234.
    $\dagger$ Descendants of Kashgarian Iabourers imported ly the Chinese into Kuldja in 1762.

[^31]:    * Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, Vol. XXXI. (1861), and Vol. XXXIX. (1869), in addition to tho works of Osten-Sacken, Regel, Ujfalvy, and othor scientific explorers of the last few years.
    $\dagger$ Schuyler: "Turkestan," Vol. II. (1876), pp. 162 et seq.

[^32]:    * In addition to the ndmirable work of Dr. Scluyler, and the various Russian treatises on the province, descriptions of the races will be found in a puper by Dr. Radloff in Petermann's Gcographische Mittheilungen, 1866, pp. 88, 250.

[^33]:    * Kull is the Turki word for a lako, and is equivalent to tho Mongol Nor.
    $\dagger$ Severtsof: Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, Vol. XL. (1870), p. 371.

[^34]:    "That is, "the River." In that portion of its course still unexplored it falls 8,000 fect, if not more, so that future explorations must result in some grand diseoverics in fluvial geography. (Droceedings of the Royal Geograyhical Society, 1879, p. 274.)

[^35]:    * In Mr. Clements Markham's monumental introduction and notes to the "Narrative of the Mi:sion of George Bogle to Tibet, and of tho Journey of Thomas Manning to Lhassa," is given an almost oxhaustivo resume of everything known about the country, or written regarding it, up to the date of that publication (1876).

[^36]:    * Transnctions of the Geographical Section of the British Association, Sheffeld Mecting, 1879; Procesdings of the Royal Gcographical Society, 1879, pp. 680-82; and "Explorations in Western Tibet" ("Report of tho Survey of India for 1877-8," cited in Procecdings of the Royal Geographical Socicty, 1879, p. 444).

[^37]:    *For a description of tho religious relations of Tibet, seo "Races of Mankind," Yol. IV., pp. 121-138, where also will be found a fuller account of tho Lamas, their modo of election, thoir monasteries, and tho capital of the country.

    + Yule: "Mission to Ava." p. 273 and Appendix G; Fytcho: "Burmah, Past and Present" (1878), Vol. I., p. 268; Anderson: "The Irrawaddy and its Sources" (Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, Vol. XL., 1870, p. 268), \&c.

[^38]:    * Mason: "The Natural Proluctions of Burmah" (1850); Kurtz: Jouruml of the Asiatic Sorirty of' armgnt (1874).

[^39]:    * "Report on the Teak Forests of Pegu" (1854), cited by Fytche: lib. cit., Vol. I., p. 303.

[^40]:    * Day: Procertings of the Zoological Society (1860-70), and "Fishes of lntia" (187.7-78); Blyth: Jownal of the Asiatic Socicty of Deweal (1875) ; Anderann: "Scientific Results of the Vinn-man Lxpelition" (1880), \&e. $\dagger$ For afullu acrount of tho habis of the Burmese see "laces of Mankinl," Vol. IV., pp. 138-lli.

[^41]:    *For trade routar to China, see Coryton : Journal of the Royal Geographioal Sority, Vol. XLV. (1875),

[^42]:    *Yule: "Narrative of the Mission to Ava under Sir Arthur Phare" (1859).

    + Fytche: "Burmah, Past and Iresent," Vol, I., p. 30.

[^43]:    * Lamrie: "Our Burmeso Wars and Relations with Burma" (1880); Gouger: "Two Years' Imprisonment in lurmah" (1812); Winter: "Six Months in Burmah" (1858); Forbes: "Burmah" (1879); Anderson: "Expedition to East Yunnan viâ Bhamo" (1871) ; "Mandalay and Momica" (1876); Trant: "Two Years in Ava" (1827); Vincent: "The Land of the White Elephant" (1873); M"Mathon: "The Karens and the Gohlen Chersonese" (1876); Bastian: "Reisen in Birma" (1866); Ligandet: "Life and Legend of Gaudama" (1879); as well as tho works of Sangermano, Cox, Symes, Snodgrass, Wayland, Canning, Crawfurd, Burney, and others.

[^44]:    "O'Riley: "Journal of a Tour in Karennce" (1856).

    + General lyytehe states that in 1875-6 tho provineo had a population of $3,010,662$, and a gross revenuo of
    

[^45]:    * Almamaeh de Gotha (1880), p. 951. Another estimate puts the national income and expenditure cach at about

[^46]:    * Bowring: "The Kingdom and People of Siam" (1857); Grehan: "Le royaume de Siam" (1868); Mouhot: "Travels in tho Central Parts of Indo-China, Cambodia, and Laos during the years 1858-1860" (1804); Bastian: "Dic Völker des östlichen Asiens" (1866-67); Pallegoix: "Description du royaumo Tha: on Siam" (1854) ; "Memoires do lạ Socićté Academique Indo-Chinoise," and "Annales de l'Extrême Orient"; "Forcign Office Reports" up to date, etc.

[^47]:    *For notes on these people, and those of the ncighbouring countries, seo "Races of Mankind," Vol. IV., pp. 147-157.

[^48]:    *Transartions of the Limman Sociely, Vol. XXIV., p. 487.

[^49]:    *Journal afficiel de la Republique frangaise, August 4th, 6th, and 7th, 1874; "Almanach de Gotha" (1880),

[^50]:    * In some publications tho estimate given falls short by one-half of this ealeulation of Behm and Wagner.
    + "Report by Sir Brooks Robertson respecting his Visit to Haiphong and Hanoi" (Parliamentary Paper, 1876), Dutreuil de Rhins: Bulltinn de la Soc. de Geogr. de Paris, Feb., 1878; De la Liraye: "Notes Historiques sur la Nation Annamito" (Saigon, 1865).

[^51]:    * Du Caillaux: " La France nu Tong King" (1876) : Harmand: "Apereu pathologique sur la Cochin-chine;" Vial: "Les premières années de la Cochin-chine" (1874); Veuillot: "La Cochin-chine et la Tonquin" (1859);

[^52]:    and M. Mamoin's article in the Encyclopedia Britannica with references. The last named, however, eentains no allusion to the ehanges brought about by the treaty of 1874. In St. Martin's "L'Annee Geographique" will be found lists of books on the ceuntry ; and in 1867 M . du Beage pullished a bibliography of its literature.
    *"Tableaux do la population, etc., des Colonies françaises pour l'unnée 1876" (1878).

[^53]:    * Carné: "Travels in Indo-China and the Chineso Empire" (1872).

[^54]:    * "Raees of Munkind," Vol. II., pp. 127-129. Mouat: Jonrmal of the Anthropological Institute (1873), \&e.
    + Monat: "Adventures and lescarches in the Andaman Islands" (1873); Kura: "Heport on the Vegetation of the Andaman Ishands" (1870); Hamilton: "New Account of the East Indics" (1727); Yule: Encurlaphedies Britamica (1875), \&c.
    $\ddagger$ "The Book of Ser Marco Pole," by Colenel Yule, Vol. II., p. 248.

[^55]:    * Röpstorff: Gengraphical Magazine, Feb., 1875, p. 44, Feb., 1878, p. 39; Steen-Bille: "Corvetten Gulatheas Jordonseiling" (1819) ; Rink: "Die Nikoburischen Inseln" (1817); Kurz: Journal of Botany (N.S.), Vol. lV., P. 321; Blyth : Jowrnal of the Asiatie Socity of Bengat, Vol. XV., p. 367; Rosen: "Erendringer fra mit ophold pu: de Nikobarske Oer" (1839); Bireh: Calentla Revierr, July, 1878; und 1)istant: Journal of the Anthrophogical Irstitute, 1876 , p. 209, where will be found a complete bibliography of tho literature of the group up to date.

[^56]:    * "Ceylon, ly an Offect late of the Ceylon Rifles," Vol. I. (1876), p. 371. This exhanstive work, which tho industrious author has seen fit to publish under a thin pseudonymic disguise, I shall in future quote as "Ceylon."

[^57]:    *Ferguson's "Ceylon Dircetory and IIandbook" (1878).

[^58]:    * Mrs. Brassey: "Voyage of the Sunbeam," p. 195.
    + "Coylon," Vol. I., p. 68.

[^59]:    * Hunter: "Anrals of Rural Bengal" (1871), p. 97.

[^60]:    * Clarke: Transactions of the Limean Soriety, 2nd Ser., Bot., Vol. I. (1880), p. 425.
    $\dagger$ LIodgson: "Geography of the Nimnlaya," [. 3, eited by Markham: "Tibet," Introd., p. xxxiv.

[^61]:    * Markham : Journal of the Royal Gcographical Socicty, Vol. XXXVI. (1866), p. 195.

[^62]:    * Ghauts-not to be confounded with the cliffs of the same name (p. 181)-aro buildings ereeted along the banks of tho Indian rivers for the convenienco of bathers. On the flights of steps which lend down from the kiosks to the water the Hindoo passes some of the huppiest hours of his life. Hero, away from tho narrow; unwholesome streets, he ean breathe the fresh nir of the river, and sit in contemplative attitude, intent on devout things, gossip with the ide, or perhaps transact some business with those not unwilling to combine pleasure with profit.

[^63]:    * Andrews: "India and Her Neighbours" (1878), pp. 8-10.

[^64]:    * Jerdon: " Birds of India" (1870).
    $\dagger$ Day: "Fishes of India" (1875-78).

[^65]:    * ILof $\quad$ : : "Selections from the Recorls of the Government of Bengal," No XXVII. (1857), p. 5.
    in Now millions of acres, yielding 268 million quarters of wheat, are now returned in the whentproducing taw in the different protinces of Lulia. Aecorling to the Indian Hevald for April of 1880 tho area under wheat in Imdia is about six times as great as that in England, for in 1888 there were in Great Britain :1.218, 117 acres under this crop. Dr. Forbes Watson (Parliamentary " Report on Indian Wheat," 1879) ranks

[^66]:    *Wakefield: "The Happy Valley" (1879), pp. 137-140.
    $\dagger$ Elcusine coracana. It is also cultivated in Japan and on the Coramandel coast, where it is ealled "Natchnee."

[^67]:    *Androws: "India and her Neighbours," pp. 12, 13 ; and the various publieations of the India Muscum. See also "Reports on the Moral and Material Progress of India," and Birdwood: "Arts of India" (1880).

[^68]:    " laces of Mankind," Vol. IV., 1. 52.

[^69]:    * Keene: "Fall of the Moghul Empire;" Kaye: " History of the Sepoy War;" "Statistieal Account of the Delhi District;" and the works of Hunter, Rousselet, Andrews, Sehlagintweit, and numerous other reeent writers.

[^70]:    * "Races of Mankind," Vol. IV., p. 89 ,

[^71]:    *"The l'unjab and tho North-West Frontier of India," by An Old Punjabee (1878), pp. 2-5.

[^72]:    * Gardener's Chronicle. $\quad+$ The Colonies and India, May 1st, 1880.

[^73]:    * Rohinson: "Description of Assam" (1841): Inatcr: "A Statistical Account of Assam" (1879); and "Imprial (azattecr of India" (now in course of publication), \&e.

[^74]:    *This is the invariable preamble; lut what is the meaning of " $1 \frac{1}{4}$," no one, not even the "sliroff" himself, seems to know.

    + The founder of a llindoo cra.

